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An exploratory study of stakeholders' views and the context realities of implementing student-centred instruction within secondary schools in Nigeria.

An exploratory study of stakeholders' views and the context realities of implementing student-centred instruction within secondary schools in Nigeria.

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ABSTRACT

Student-centred instruction (SCI), a concept that echoes the principles and ideas of learner-centred education (LCE) was recently introduced to secondary school classrooms in Nigeria through curriculum reform. SCI is defined as an instructional approach, which places the learner at the centre of the learning experiences, that represents a shift from teacher-centred instruction and encourages the use of creative and engaging methods in classroom practice (Vavrus, Thomas, & Bartlett, 2011). A detailed review of literature around education reform revealed that advocacy for SCI/LCE in Nigerian schools is based on debateable assumptions about existing classroom practice. This study argues that the lack of critical and comprehensive research around curriculum reform in Nigeria led to those assumptions and that they ought to be reconsidered for a proper grasp of context realities. It also acknowledges that it has become necessary to question and respond to the move towards LCE reform, given the prevalent and persisting reports of unsuccessful implementation in many countries (Guthrie et al., 2015; Schweisfurth, 2011).

Therefore, this study seeks to explore the process of LCE reform in Nigerian secondary schools. It does this through an empirical investigation that arguably provides a more critical and comprehensive account of SCI implementation than what was previously available. A qualitative methodology was used to conduct research in three purposively selected secondary schools in a city in the south-west region of Nigeria. Data collection methods included observations, interviews and focus groups. A thematic content analysis of data found: (1) that a number of factors that contribute to and limit SCI implementation within well-resourced and low-resourced secondary schools; (2) that classroom practices within the selected schools did not match SCI recommendations, but followed a formalistic approach to instruction; (3) that the beliefs and preferences of the selected teachers and students, especially those informed by their cultural values contribute to classroom practice and their reactions to SCI implementation. The overall research findings were used to argue that SCI implementation in Nigerian secondary schools is subject to the contextual factors and the socio-cultural context of education. The research findings were also used to argue that classroom practice is not entirely resource-dependent in Nigerian secondary schools.

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Author's Declaration

I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the requirements of the University's Regulations and Code of Practice for Research Degree Programmes and that it has not been submitted for any other academic award. Except where indicated by specific reference in the text, the work is the candidate's own work. Work done in collaboration with, or with the assistance of, others, is indicated as such. Any views expressed in the dissertation are those of the author.

SIGNED: Abi'odun O Oyewole DATE: July 2017

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List of Abbreviations

LCE	Learner-centred education
SCI	Student-centred instruction
EFA	Education for All
WC-EFA	World conference on Education for All
NERDC	Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council
SAP	Structural Adjustment programmes
NEEDS	National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
BEC	Basic Education Curriculum
SSEC	Senior Secondary Education Curriculum
WAEC	West African Examination Council
WASSCE	West African Senior School Certificate Examination
NECO	National Examination Council
US-AID	United States Agency for International Development
IMF	International Monetary fund
NPE	National policy on Education
ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
UBE	Universal Basic Education
BEA	Basic Education for All
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics

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If you close your eyes to facts, you will learn through your mistakes ~ African proverb

Chapter I: Introduction

1.1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Learner-centred education (LCE) became a significant topic in the education reform of many countries during the 1990s (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Tabulawa, 2003). LCE reform promised an agenda of improved educational quality and many countries subscribed to this agenda (Vavrus et al., 2011). LCE reform was introduced in those countries as the primary means to improve school curricula and methods of teaching, to improve learning achievement and outcomes, to promote democratic values in education and achieve global aims for educational advancement (Bantwini, 2010). Different forms of LCE reform have been adopted across different countries. They include the introduction of Outcome-based education in South Africa, LCE-based education reform in sub-Saharan African countries, and the introduction of student-centred instruction through curriculum reform in many countries (Vavrus et al., 2011).

Student-centred instruction has also been introduced to the Nigerian education system through a recent curriculum reform that took place between 2007 and 2011 (Ahmadi & Lukman, 2015; Igbokwe, 2015). Student-centred instruction (SCI) echoes the principles of LCE and has been defined as:

> *"An instructional approach employing creative methodologies in which students become the centre of the learning process by influencing the content, activities, materials, and pace of learning." (Collins & O'Brien, 2011, p. 446)*

International literature also suggests that SCI (sometimes referred to as learner-centred education – LCE)[1] is an approach, which contrasts teacher-centred instruction or pedagogy and encourages a more active role for students in the learning environment (Felder & Brent, 1996; Vavrus et al., 2011).

[1] Both terms are not presented as interchangeable in this thesis. Differences between LCE and SCI are explained further in the literature review.

A detailed review of the local and international literature has shown that there is currently insufficient research on the introduction of LCE reform in Nigeria. The number of local research studies which advocate the need for LCE reform as the resolution to many problems in the Nigerian education system is increasing (Ahmad, 2016; Christian & Pepple, 2012; Nneji, 2011; Oluniyi, 2011; Oluniyi & Aluko, 2012). The bulk of those research studies have focused on investigating the impact of SCI through classroom interventions (B. Adeyemi, 2008; Ajiboye & Ajitoni, 2008; Akinbobola, 2010; Awofala, Arigbabu, & Awofala, 2013; Christian & Pepple, 2012; Kolawole, 2008; Nneji, 2011; Udo, 2010). There are many examples of local research studies that employ a quasi-experimental research design to investigate the application of a particular class activity within different classrooms. Examples include the use of a pictorial organizer (Akinbobola & Afolabi, 2010), the use of a concept map (Adesola, 2013); and the use of a cooperative learning workbook (Christian & Pepple, 2012). These studies suggest that the application of a particular class activity to a lesson necessarily implies that SCI has been achieved in the classroom. This study argues in chapter 2 that such studies present an oversimplified interpretation of SCI implementation in Nigerian schools. Also, there are hardly any studies that examine the recent introduction of SCI to the syllabus of different subjects at the secondary level of education.

This situation is urgent, particularly because of the identified concerns around LCE transfer to non-western and developing countries[2]. After many years of advocating LCE reform, the international literature records that there has been little or no reports of success within developing countries (Schweisfurth, 2011; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012). Some of the major problems identified within the transfer of LCE to those countries include observations that: LCE is often exaggerated as a solution to diverse problems in the education system of different countries; its ideas and principles are often misinterpreted or oversimplified; and the requirements for its implementation are often underestimated (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Schweisfurth, 2011; Sikoyo, 2010). Another problem is that policy

[2] The author is well aware of the controversies surrounding the use of this term recently but chose to use it as the most related option to describe low income countries that seek to emulate advanced countries.

makers tend to disregard arguments that LCE reform is prone to fail because of the context realities and cultural values of developing countries (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b; Schweisfurth, 2013b; Sikoyo, 2010; Tabulawa, 1997). In other words, policy makers tend to ignore the differences between the original context of LCE (western countries) and the developing (and non-western) countries where it is being recommended (Guthrie, 1986; O'Donoghue, 1994; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005).

It shows that the concerns of LCE transfer to developing countries have been overlooked with the introduction of SCI through the recent curriculum reform in Nigeria. A detailed review of local literature about the process of education reform in Nigeria shows that advocacy for LCE was informed by inaccurate notions about the current state of classroom practice in different schools. As mentioned earlier, there is also insufficient research currently, on the introduction of LCE reform to Nigerian schools. This study argues that the available research studies in the local literature have adopted an uncritical approach to investigating SCI implementation in Nigerian schools. This study responds to these concerns with a critical and empirical investigation of LCE reform in Nigeria thereby providing new evidence and extending existing knowledge about LCE reform in a context where it has been under-researched. It does this through a comprehensive literature review of the events that preceded and initiated LCE reform in Nigeria, and a qualitative research study on the experiences of SCI implementation in Nigerian secondary schools. This qualitative research design attempts to observe whether or not there have been any changes to classroom practice since the start of recent curriculum reform. This approach is different and arguably more comprehensive compared to the quantitative and quasi-experimental research studies of classroom practice that are increasing in the local literature.

The qualitative research design also focused on acquiring the views of teachers and students about the realities of classroom practice and SCI implementation, in different schools. This approach to research design generated first-hand and comprehensive accounts on the lived experiences of the stakeholders who are directly involved in, and mostly affected by, the implementation of LCE reform in Nigerian schools. The main focus of the classroom observations in this study is the civic education subject. Civic education

was added to the secondary school curriculum through recent curriculum reform. It is suggested in the local literature that teaching the new syllabus of the newly introduced subject implies participation in SCI implementation through curriculum reform. The doubts around this suggestion is informed by the observed contradictions in the local literature about whether or not the civic education syllabus actually reflects or encourages LCE ideas. However, policy makers and a few local researchers have suggested that the addition of student activities in the subject syllabus is an indication of LCE reform. Another reason for selecting civic education as the main focus for classroom observations in this study is that there are arguments in the local literature that the syllabus of civic education provides more opportunities for SCI compared to other subjects in the secondary education curriculum. Overall, this study aims to explore stakeholders' perspectives, and the context realities of SCI implementation in civic education lessons within secondary schools in Nigeria.

1.2 ACADEMIC RATIONALE

The potential failure of LCE[3] reform in developing countries has been widely reported in the international literature (Ali & Baig, 2012; O'Sullivan, 2004; Schweisfurth, 2011). There are also debates in the international literature on whether or not potential failure can be avoided in the implementation of LCE reform (Guthrie, 2012, 2016). Some researchers maintain that LCE reform in developing countries can succeed if technical concerns are anticipated and dealt with during policy reform (Ginsburg, 2006; Thompson, 2013). Those technical concerns include awareness of LCE reform, in-service teacher training and creating the suitable learning environment for SCI. Other researchers suggest that dealing with these technical concerns does not erase or reduce the potential for LCE reform to fail in developing countries (Ali & Baig, 2012; Sikoyo, 2010). The latter set of researchers maintain that contextual factors and cultural values will continue to undermine efforts to

[3] LCE is used in this thesis to cover the concepts that reflect progressive changes to education in many countries (especially in developing countries). Further explanations on this use of LCE are included in the Literature review chapter

transfer LCE reform to developing countries (Guthrie, 2016). Such debates have intensified in recent times, and this has been attributed to an increasing tendency to 'water down' the principles of LCE in the curriculum reform of developing countries (Hu, 2002; O'Sullivan, 2004; Thompson, 2013). In other words, the ideas and principles of LCE have been softened over the years in favour of beliefs that LCE can be successfully transferred to developing countries (Schweisfurth, 2015; Vavrus, 2009; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012). Some researchers argue that this has happened because the advocates of LCE refuse to admit that western and non-western cultures cannot be easily reconciled (Cheng, 2012; Guthrie, 2016; Guthrie et al., 2015).

The debates around LCE transfer call attention to the urgent concerns surrounding the future of education reform in developing countries. This situation raises questions about whether or not it is cost and time effective to continue to advocate for LCE reform in developing countries (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Sikoyo, 2010; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012). It also elicits thoughts about the future of education in countries that are committed to the reconciliation of cultures in education (Crossley, 2008). In other words, what will happen if contextual factors and cultural beliefs cause classroom practices to remain unyielding in the face of LCE reform? This study has been carried out to contribute to an international academic knowledge base on LCE transfer, given that the topic is under-researched in Nigeria. It also contributes evidence to arguments in the international literature that highlight the consequences of uncritical promotion of LCE across different contexts and cultures.

1.3 LOCAL/NIGERIAN RATIONALE

The current state of secondary education in Nigeria is commonly criticised in the local literature. Many local research studies suggest that secondary education is riddled with problems and the result is the declining rates of student achievement in national examinations (Härmä, 2013; Ige, 2013; Y. O. Lawal, 2013; Ojedokun & Aladejana, 2012; Salman, Mohammed, Ogunlade, & Ayinla, 2012). The problem is that such critiques are supported with assumptions and theories rather than valid evidence about existing

classroom practice in Nigerian secondary schools (Moja, 2000). These assumptions and theories are transmitted by individuals deemed as 'experts' of the education system, and they contribute to curriculum reform agendas from time to time (Abimbade, 1999; Ijaiya, 2000; Jekayinfa, 2006; Maduewesi, 2003). Over the past two decades, the critiques of secondary education in the local literature have generated and sustained a number of assumptions about classroom practice within secondary schools. The same assumptions led to advocacy for LCE reform and the introduction of SCI to secondary school classrooms.

This study addresses two of the prevalent assumptions about classroom practices in Nigerian secondary schools. The first is that classroom practice within secondary schools is teacher-centred in the sense that it denies opportunities for class activities and student contributions during lessons (Oyewole, 2016). This assumption has been used to back up arguments in the local literature that SCI should be encouraged in classroom practice within secondary schools. The second assumption is that most private secondary schools would find it easier to deliver quality education because they have better school and learning conditions than many public secondary schools (Thompson, 2013). This assumption has been used to argue that engaging classroom practices such as SCI would be easier to implement within well-resourced schools. Again, these assumptions about context realities in Nigerian secondary schools are embedded in the viewpoint that LCE reform will cure all the problems of the secondary education system (Ahmad, 2016; Aroge, 2012; Falade & Adeyemi, 2015).

The depicted process of education reform and advocacy for LCE in Nigeria, highlights the need for more analytic research that checks the prevalent notions about classroom practice in secondary schools and more valid investigation of SCI implementation than what is currently available. Beliefs that LCE reform is a panacea to diverse problems in any educational system attracts high expectations from education reform, which are often frustrated (Schweisfurth, 2011; Sriprakash, 2010). Sustained focus on LCE reform as the solution to different problems in Nigerian education may ultimately remove attention from other possibly more successful methods to address different issues in the education system (Nkosana, 2013; Schweisfurth, 2011). Furthermore, the federal government's

attempts to improve the education system in Nigeria are often conducted at a significant expense and with hope for change in a set number of years (Ani, 2010; Asaaju, 2015; Awofala & Sopekan, 2013; Okoroma, 2006). It would be quite negligent to implement such plans without investigating the implementation process at school level. This study seeks to provide original evidence on the under-researched process of LCE reform in Nigeria, which could prove beneficial for future policy development and priorities in the education system.

1.4 PERSONAL RATIONALE

My interest in education reform in Nigeria, especially around LCE reform started during my Masters' degree at the Institute of Education, University College London. My MA dissertation focused on the outcomes of introducing LCE reform in sub-Saharan African countries. At that time and prior to the PhD fieldwork, I had strong beliefs that advocacy for LCE reform was a good though impractical agenda in developing countries. I was only exposed to the argument that contextual factors such as school and learning conditions were the main barriers to LCE reform in developing countries. This argument has been described as the 'technicist' explanation of unsuccessful LCE reform in developing countries (Tabulawa, 1997). My initial desire was to confirm through my doctoral research that the technicist explanation holds across different school contexts in sub-Saharan African countries. Therefore, the introduction of curriculum reform to promote SCI in Nigerian secondary schools in 2011, presented the opportunity to commit to a detailed exploration of LCE reform in my country.

During my PhD fieldwork however, I acquired some research findings that contradicted my initial beliefs about LCE reform. Due to this event, the past few years of my PhD have involved a lot of soul searching, reflexivity and transformation of staunchly held beliefs. One of my concerns while writing the research proposal was the fact that students' views are hardly considered in research around classroom practice in Nigeria. It therefore became a main objective in this study to acquire and present the views that students as stakeholders might have about the classroom practice and SCI in their classrooms. Lastly,

conducting this research has improved my understanding of the underlying factors that contribute to classroom practice in different contexts. This understanding has positively influenced my professional and personal views as an educator. Conducting research around LCE reform at the classroom level has also uncovered in my mind, an underlying passion for pedagogical practices.

1.5 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The overall aim of this study was to explore stakeholders' perspectives, and the context realities of SCI implementation within civic education lessons in private and public secondary schools in Nigeria. The objectives of this study were to:

a. Present an overview of LCE and SCI as distinctive though interrelated concepts from the international literature.

b. Present an analytic account of the advance of LCE transfer to developing countries and the criticisms of LCE transfer in the international literature.

c. Generate a conceptual framework from the international literature, which highlights the different factors that influence LCE reform in developing countries.

d. Present a critical account of the history of education reform in Nigeria that shows the events that led to the problematizing of classroom practices and promotion of SCI implementation at the secondary level of education.

e. Provide an analytic account on the links between culture and pedagogy in Nigeria since the traditional era to date.

f. Conduct empirical research on the context realities of SCI implementation within secondary schools in Nigeria, given the assumptions that SCI would be easier to implement within well-resourced schools.

g. Investigate and observe classroom practices within civic education[4] lessons in Nigerian secondary schools, given arguments in the local literature that the syllabus of civic education provides more opportunities for SCI than subjects such as Mathematics, English language and Computer studies.

h. Conduct qualitative research that examines the perspectives of civic education teachers and their students, given that they are stakeholders directly involved in, and mostly affected by SCI implementation.

i. Present an analytic discussion on the factors that influence SCI implementation in Nigerian secondary schools based on the findings of this research.

j. Consider the implications of the research findings for the future of curriculum reform at the secondary level of education in Nigeria.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What contextual factors influence SCI implementation within three secondary schools in Nigeria?

2. What are the features of classroom practice in the observed civic education lessons within the three schools?

3. What are the perspectives of selected civic education teachers on classroom practices during their civic education lessons and SCI implementation?

4. What are the perspectives of selected senior secondary year II students on classroom practices during their civic education lessons and SCI implementation?

[4] More detail on the civic education subject is included in chapter 3

1.7 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK (OVERVIEW)

This study makes use of a substantial body of international literature on LCE to develop its conceptual framework. Especially literature that discussed the following themes:

a. Definitions of SCI and LCE, and the underlying principles of these interrelated concepts
b. History and advance of LCE reform in developing countries
c. Criticisms of LCE transfer to developing countries; and
d. Factors that influence the introduction of LCE reform in developing and non-western countries

The first theme is drawn from authors including Brandes and Ginnis (1986) and McCombs and Whisler (1997), who presented clear and detailed descriptions and accounts of LCE and SCI in order to reduce vagueness around both concepts in the international literature. The second theme is included in the works of authors and researchers including Henson (2003), O'Neill and McMahon (2005) and Vavrus et al. (2011). Their writings help to trace the background and rationale for LCE and its transfer from western to non-western countries.

The body of literature on the third theme consists of diverse research and analytic reviews of the research conducted on LCE reform in different countries (Schweisfurth, 2011, 2013a). Many authors and researchers have identified the concerns surrounding LCE reform in developing or low-income countries. Such work has been used to argue that advocacy for LCE transfer encourages the illusion that LCE reform can be quite easy and straightforward (Guro & Weber, 2010). The third and fourth themes are drawn from the same body of international literature. The educational researchers and analysts that identified the challenges of LCE reform within different countries, also presented varied explanations for their observations. Such explanations include arguments that a wide range of contextual factors influence and determine the success of LCE reform in different countries (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010a; Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011; Schweisfurth, 2011). These viewpoints provide a starting point for investigating the context realities of SCI implementation within Nigerian secondary schools.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN (OVERVIEW)

In order to address its overall aim, objectives and research questions, this study makes use of a qualitative approach to research design. It does this by employing philosophical paradigms that permit the grasp of 'social reality' through inquiry such as post-positivism and Interpretivism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Post-positivism claims that social reality can be partially apprehended even though it is subject to human error and limitations, and Interpretivism underlies inquiry that is conducted in natural settings, and around human experiences (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In this way, the study seeks to apprehend the realities of LCE reform in Nigeria, even though it acknowledges that the researcher's observations and interpretations are not a 'fixed truth'. This study is also set within a post-positivist (or critical realist) perspective, where the researcher admits that the knowledge acquired through research is fallible and open to correction.

The qualitative research design enables the use of non-probability samples in this study. Non-probability sampling is a key feature of qualitative research that is well-suited to the small-scale size of this research (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003). The use of a non-probability sample also indicates that the study population and context are not intended to be statistically representative of other school contexts in Nigeria (Ritchie, Lewis, et al., 2003). Qualitative methods of data collection were used to investigate three illustrative school cases comprising one private secondary school and two public secondary schools in a city, in the south-west region of Nigeria. Observations were conducted in the three schools to acquire data on school and learning conditions, classroom practices and the day to day experiences of students within the school community. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with civic education teachers, and school administrators from the three schools. More detail about the study population and context are included in chapter 4. Focus groups were also conducted with selected groups of senior secondary year II students from observed civic education lessons within the three schools. A qualitative approach was used to analyse data, namely thematic content analysis. This approach enabled the researcher to analyse and draw themes, concepts and interpretations from raw data. A reflexive account is also included in this thesis to admit the researcher's bias and influence on the research process.

1.9 AN OUTLINE OF THE DISSERTATION

The research account is presented across eight chapters in this thesis. The first and current chapter introduced the research background, presented the academic, local and personal rationale for conducting this research, provided an overview of the research aim, objectives and research questions, and presented an overview of the conceptual framework and research design of the study.

Chapter 2 includes an analytic account and review of international and local literature related to the definitions of LCE and SCI as interrelated concepts, the advance of LCE reform in developing countries, the criticisms of LCE transfer to developing countries, and a case review of LCE reform in Nigeria. The conceptual framework of this study is also presented by drawing from the international literature that records the challenges of LCE transfer to developing countries.

Chapter 3 traces the history of education reform in Nigeria with focus on the events that preceded and initiated LCE reform in Nigeria, as well as the events that led to the problematizing of classroom practices in secondary schools. The chapter also presents an account of socio-cultural context of education in Nigeria, which highlights the links between culture and pedagogy in Nigerian education; and an analytic account of the local translations of LCE reform in Nigerian secondary schools with particular focus on the indicators of SCI in the civic education subject.

Chapter 4 includes the full details of the qualitative research design and the choices made in data collection and data analysis. The chapter describes how and justifies why the post-positivist and interpretive paradigms were applied within different aspects of this research. The account of data collection and analysis describes and explains the choices made in selecting research contexts and participants (sampling procedures), for the methods and procedures of data collection, for the design and review of the topic guides used during interviews and focus groups (item development), for the piloting research instruments and analysing data. The steps taken to address the ethical issues of this research and to ensure validity in research design (trustworthiness) are also described in this chapter.

The written account of the research findings is included in Chapters 5 and 6. The first section of Chapter 5 provides a pen picture of schools to set the background for the comparisons of school cases in the discussion of the research findings. More importantly, the chapter presents the research findings or results related to RQI – What contextual factors influence SCI implementation within three secondary schools in Nigeria? and RQII – What are the features of classroom practice in the observed civic education lessons within the three schools? Chapter 6 concludes the presentation of the research findings. The chapter includes the research findings related to RQIII – What are the perspectives of selected civic education teachers on classroom practices during their civic education lessons and SCI implementation? and RQIV – What are the perspectives of selected senior secondary year II students on classroom practices during their civic education lessons and SCI implementation?

Chapter 7 includes a discussion of the research findings presented in chapters 5 and 6, especially in relation to previous research. The discussion includes the researcher's interpretations of the research findings presented in chapters 5 and 6, and a research framework developed from research analysis.

The final chapter includes a discussion of the original contributions of this research, the implications of this research for theoretical literature and education reform in Nigeria, the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has introduced this study by presenting a background account of LCE transfer to developing countries and how LCE reform has been transferred to recent curriculum reform in Nigeria. The concerns surrounding LCE transfer to developing countries and LCE reform in Nigeria have been presented in order to explain the urgent need for critical and exploratory research on LCE implementation in Nigerian schools. The background account highlighted the observation that there is currently insufficient research on SCI implementation in Nigerian secondary schools. It also called attention to the observation

that available local research studies investigate classroom practice with oversimplified translations of LCE and quasi-experimental research designs that do not focus on the context realities of SCI implementation. These observations are used to justify the originality of the proposed research and its qualitative approach to research design, especially the first-hand investigation of classroom practices within low-resourced (public) and well-resourced (private) secondary schools. This chapter has also covered the reasons why this research would be beneficial for future international literature, policy development and priorities in the Nigerian education system, and the researcher. The overall research aim, objectives and research questions have been provided to define the focus and scope of this study. An overview of the conceptual framework of this study has been presented in order to map the themes that are covered in this research, together with an outline of the research design and methodology. The structure of this thesis has also been provided to guide the reader through the contents and focus of each chapter. The next chapter contains a review of theoretical literature around LCE reform in different countries, with particular focus on the recent introduction of LCE reform to the Nigerian education system.

Chapter II: Literature Review: Learner-centred education – definitions, criticisms of international transfer and conceptual framework

INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains in-depth and analytic reviews of international literature around LCE transfer to developing countries and local literature around LCE reform in Nigeria. It begins with a discussion of LCE and SCI in order to define the usage of these terms as individual but interrelated concepts in this study. The following section is used to highlight the distinctive features of SCI, and the differences between SCI and teacher-centred instruction. The distinctive features of SCI are emphasised in this section to set this study on course to explore the appropriate translations of SCI rather than the oversimplified versions that are prominent in the local literature. The advance of LCE reform in developing countries and the criticisms of LCE transfer are also discussed across two sections in this chapter. This account is provided to highlight the trend in advocacy for LCE, the factors that motivate this trend and some of the reasons why the appeal for LCE reform has been sustained in many developing countries. The account is also used to point out the gaps in the international literature that this study seeks to address. The following section records how the concerns around LCE transfer to developing countries have manifested in the introduction of LCE reform in Nigeria and how this study intends to address some of the gaps observed within the local literature.

The next section follows with a discussion of factors that influence LCE reform across different countries, in an account that forms the conceptual framework of this study. This framework highlights the links between the factors identified in previous research and the classroom practices related to SCI in a given context. The chapter ends with an analytic discussion on how to define classroom practices in view of LCE reform, which is informed by current debates in the international literature. This discussion provides the background to interpret the observations of classroom practice related to SCI, which is included in the findings of this research.

2.1 STUDENT-CENTRED INSTRUCTION: DEFINITION AND LINKS TO LCE

What is student-centred instruction?

There are many though relatively similar definitions of SCI in the international literature. For instance, SCI has been described as a concept that emerged from learner-centred education (LCE) and derives its meaning from it (Di Napoli, 2004; Froyd & Simpson, 2008; Weimer, 2002). Learner-centredness is defined as:

> *"the perspective that couples a focus on individual learners (their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities and needs) with a focus on learning (the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning and achievement for all learners) (McCombs & Whisler, 1997, p. 9)*

This definition and other similar definitions confirm that many ideas are included in LCE. The two reasons for this are presented by proponents of LCE. The first is that LCE is a build-up of various concepts generated within the works of different philosophers and psychologists such as Socrates, Francis Bacon, John Locke, Jean Rousseau, Johann Pestalozzi, John Dewey, Lev Vygotsky and Carl Rogers (Henson, 2003; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). LCE is also a build-up of theories including the development of self (Socrates), experiential education (Locke), education of the whole child (Pestalozzi), problem-based learning (Dewey), and learning by negotiating meaning (Vygotsky). The principles and theories developed by such philosophers and psychologists over many centuries were combined to construct what is now referred to as LCE. The second reason is that fundamental principles and theories of LCE have been further developed, modified and merged with other ideas, over many years (Brodie, Lelliott, & Davis, 2002; Henson, 2003).

LCE can be difficult to describe because it has been given several definitions in literature. However, the basic themes in these definitions have been identified here as an efficient way to navigate a potentially complex depiction. One of such themes is the suggestion that all forms of content and methods adopted for 'best' levels of learning and achievement are associated with LCE. Some definitions have emphasised that LCE aims to generate the 'best practices' for learning. Such definitions suggest that LCE is the trigger

for best practices in education, and is exclusive to diverse teaching methods that bring about high levels of achievement in learning (Gunderman, Williamson, Frank, Heitkamp, & Kipfer, 2003; Norman & Spohrer, 1996). An example is the definition of LCE as a movement that emphasises:

> *'the idea that people learn best when engrossed in the topic, motivated to seek out new knowledge and skills because they need them in order to solve the problem at hand' (Norman & Spohrer, 1996, p. 1).*

Another theme is the suggestion that LCE covers many ideas, theories and practices that emphasise the centrality of the learner in education processes (Gunderman et al., 2003; Henson, 2003). Definitions of LCE in this view, emphasise its contrast with teacher-centred education (Ahmad, 2016; Di Napoli, 2004; Henson, 2003; Vavrus et al., 2011). They claim that there is a shift in focus from the teacher to the learner within LCE (O'Neill & McMahon, 2005; Schweisfurth, 2011). Examples include the definition of LCE as:

> *'an educational and instructional philosophy in which the key elements of teaching and learning in the traditional format of education are redefined and reformed' (Schiller, 2009, p. 369)*

> *'an effective answer to the dominance of a transmissive teacher-centred education, which is blamed for leading to rote-learning and stifling critical and creative thinking among pupils' (Mtika & Gates, 2010, p. 396)*

Some definitions also suggest that there is a clear contrast between the principles of LCE and those related to teacher-centred education (cf.Di Napoli, 2004; Gunderman et al., 2003; Norman & Spohrer, 1996; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). Such definitions emphasise that teacher-centred education encourages the teacher's role as the presenter of knowledge, and the students' role as the recipient of knowledge (Di Napoli, 2004; Lea, Stephenson, & Troy, 2003; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). They also state that teachers control the decision-making processes, within teacher-centred education and have more power than their students (O'Neill & McMahon, 2005; Wright, 2011). These tenets of teacher-centred education are contrasted with LCE by highlighting that students and teachers are co-constructors of knowledge in LCE (Froyd & Simpson, 2008; Schiller, 2009; Vavrus et al., 2011). This means that learning is generated within the interactions of students and

teachers (Schiller, 2009). LCE is further described as pedagogy that encourages students to have increased power, and contribute to decision-making processes in the learning environment (Froyd & Simpson, 2008; Gunderman et al., 2003). An example is the definition of LCE as:

> *The pedagogic shift from the traditional teacher-centred approach, in which the emphasis is on teachers and what they teach to a student centred approach, in which the emphasis is on students and what they learn, requires a fundamental change in the role of the educator from that of a didactic teacher to that of a facilitator of learning (Spencer & Jordan, 1999, p. 1280).*

Many definitions also identify activities in teacher-centred education, which are contrasted with the kind of activities expected within LCE. The identified activities in teacher-centred education include lengthy teacher explanations, the use of drill, exercises, tutorials, memorisation of facts, and low level of students' choices in activities (Henson, 2003; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). Instead, activities expected within LCE include the use of inquiry activities, practical activities, problem-solving techniques, and high level of students' choices in activities (Henson, 2003; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005).

What then is the link between LCE and SCI?

This is an important question given that SCI has been equated to LCE in literature. There are conflicting opinions about this issue. Some authors suggest that LCE has a broader scope than SCI, while others suggest that both terms can be used interchangeably. This problem is further complicated with the fact that too many synonyms of LCE abound in the international literature (Lea et al., 2003; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). Such terms include **student-centred learning** (Baeten, Kyndt, Struyven, & Dochy, 2010; Elen, Clarebout, Léonard, & Lowyck, 2007; Lea et al., 2003); **learner-centred approach** (O'Sullivan, 2004; Spencer & Jordan, 1999); **learner-centred pedagogy** (Carney, 2008; Spreen & Vally, 2010; Tabulawa, 2003); **active learning** (Nanney, 2004) and many others.

It is acknowledged in this thesis that SCI and LCE are invariably linked in literature. Both terms are therefore described as related but unequal concepts. They are related because the previously identified themes of LCE are also observable in SCI. SCI like LCE is defined

as a concept that ensures 'best practices' and allows the use of diverse methods, which ensure high levels of student achievement (Di Napoli, 2004; Felder & Brent, 1996; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). SCI like LCE is also defined as a method that places primary focus on the student-learner in the learning environment (Armbruster, Patel, Johnson, & Weiss, 2009; Froyd & Simpson, 2008; Gelisli, 2009). SCI is also defined in contrast to teacher-centred education. An example of this is the definition of SCI as:

> *"The approach marks a significant shift from teacher-centred pedagogy, where students take a more passive role as teachers transmit knowledge that students learn primarily through rote memorisation" (Vavrus et al., 2011)*

Such definitions confirm that SCI is related to LCE. However, it is also indicated in literature that LCE is more comprehensive in scope than SCI. For instance, LCE has been described as a concept that covers different aspects of education, including the system of instruction, learning processes, assessment procedures and curriculum design (O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). In contrast, the descriptions of SCI show that it is primarily concerned with classroom instruction or practice (Collins & O'Brien, 2011). The following definition[5] of SCI illustrates this point:

> *"An instructional approach employing creative methodologies in which students become the centre of the learning process by influencing the content, activities, materials, and pace of learning." (Collins & O'Brien, 2011, p. 446)*

This definition confirms that SCI echoes the defining themes of LCE, but it does not cover all the aspects included in the latter. The limited scope of SCI is also indicated in literature around education reform within developing countries where LCE is used as a cover term for many concepts that reflect a progressive movement in education (Schweisfurth, 2011). Such concepts are wide-ranging and sometimes distinguishable from SCI, they include outcome-based education (Spreen & Vally, 2010); child-centred education (Sriprakash, 2010); learner-centred pedagogy (Sikoyo, 2010), progressive classroom reform (Guthrie, 2012); active learning, active participation and student-centred pedagogy (Hülya Kosar

[5] Definition cited earlier in the introduction chapter

Altinyelken, 2011). These reasons justify the use of SCI and LCE as separate terms in this study.

2.2 DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF STUDENT-CENTRED INSTRUCTION

According to Schweisfurth (2013a), LCE strategies are in danger of being misinterpreted in local contexts, as just about any practice that involves student participation [6]. Oversimplified definitions of SCI are increasing in literature and have motivated the need to identify distinctive features of SCI in this study. These details also provide a basis to compare current interpretations of classroom practice with the ideal form of SCI. The distinctive features of SCI include a constructivist base of knowledge, individualism, and the use of 'engaging methods' (Attard, Di Loio, Geven, & Santa, 2010; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005; Tabulawa, 2003).

Constructivism is based on the premise that knowledge is not independent of the individual (Taylor, 1990). In other words, what is known is created from social processes, and through social interaction; it is not received or transmitted (Olssen, 1996). This is often described as a contrast to theories of knowledge, which claim that knowledge can be grasped (realist ontology), objectively (positivism) or subjectively (critical realism) (Olssen, 1996; Taylor, 1990). Constructivism is associated with SCI, through claims that 'knowledge' cannot simply be passed on to students in learning environments (Tabulawa, 2003; Taylor, 1990). Constructivist learning rejects the assumption that there is 'valid knowledge' or truth that learners should receive (Taylor, 1990). Instead, 'viable knowledge' is expected to be constructed in the classroom, through a negotiation of information provided by the teacher and the previous knowledge of the students (Taylor, 1990). In this way, students are considered as 'active' participants or 'co-constructors' of knowledge within the classroom (Nykiel-Herbert, 2004; Tabulawa, 2003).

[6] Further details on this argument are included in section 2.6

SCI is also based on **individualism**, with beliefs that the uniqueness of a child's interests and nature should be acknowledged within a learning environment (Hartley, 1987), Individualism in SCI suggests that the child/student/learner should 'somehow' be considered paramount in the learning environment. There are contradictions on how much emphasis can be given to an individual child in a communal learning environment (Farrington, 1991; Hartley, 1987). However, theorists state that individualism in SCI does not completely refute the desire for common or compatible experiences (Hartley, 1987). Especially in view of the fact that the school routine, syllabus, and examinations are designed for uniform experiences (Hartley, 1987; Olssen, 1996; Taylor, 1990).

The use of **engaging methods** in teaching is also a principal feature of SCI. The range of methods often attributed to SCI include group work, discussions, problem-solving activities, reflective activities, student presentations, projects, quizzes, and the use of visual aids (Attard, Di Loio, et al., 2010; Estes, 2004; Lea et al., 2003; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). Over the years, doubts have emerged on the idea that the use of engaging methods is exclusive to and necessarily indicative of SCI (D. Clarke, 2005; Guthrie, 2011; O'Reilly, 2013). Responses in the international literature have suggested that diverse methods and activities can be used with student-centred or teacher-centred activities (Guthrie, 2011; Taylor, 1990). However, it is often anticipated that classroom activities will be predominant in SCI, while teacher's explanations dominate in teacher-centred classrooms (O'Neill & McMahon, 2005; Scott, Buchanan, & Haigh, 1997).

The table below includes a snapshot of the basic and defining features of SCI in comparison with teacher-centred instruction.

Teacher-centred	**Basic principles**	**Student-centred**
Realist Ontology (Knowledge is independent & valid; can be true or false)	Theory of knowledge	Constructivism (knowledge is a construction & viable; cannot be 'true or false'; but may be more compatible with others)
Collectivism (uniformity)	Moral philosophy	Individualism (uniqueness)
Dialogue can be allowed		Dialogue is essential

Doing by Imitation	Classroom methods	Doing by creativity
Variety of Methods		Engaging methods
Expert, transmits valid knowledge	Role of the teacher	Facilitates, 'provides experiences' and negotiable information
Recipient of knowledge	Role of the student	Co-constructor of knowledge

Table 2.1: Differences between teacher-centred and student-centred instruction

2.3 ADVANCE OF LCE REFORM IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

International literature records that a wave of curriculum reform started in many countries during the 1990s (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012). A number of these reforms took place in sub-Saharan African countries and reflected advocacy for LCE in school systems (Vavrus et al., 2011). One of the reasons for this trend was the economic crises of the 1980s in many African, Asian and Latin American countries (Vavrus et al., 2011). Such countries subscribed to Structural Adjustment Programs and through this means welcomed changes to their schooling systems (Vavrus et al., 2011, p. 33). The main promise of the ensuing curriculum reforms was that there would be an increased focus on quality education and efficiency in school curricula and methods of teaching (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b; Vavrus et al., 2011). International organisations with their own agendas for education, also helped the trend of LCE reform in developing countries (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b; Tabulawa, 2003). International aid agencies such as the World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the United States Agency for International Development (US-AID) have shown and continue to show support for liberal democracy and the democratisation of education as a means to promote it (Tabulawa, 2003). Aid agencies have supported educational schemes and projects that have 'prescribed' LCE in many countries during the past three decades (Tabulawa, 2003; Vavrus et al., 2011). The aid agencies suggested that there is a relationship between education and politics and that link is embodied in LCE (Tabulawa, 2003).

This belief that LCE reform would sustain democratic rule also encouraged its adoption in countries undergoing political change (Vavrus et al., 2011). Examples include advocacy for a new system of education in Namibia in 1990 as a means to facilitate democracy (Zeichner, Amukushu, Muukenga, & Shilamba, 1998), and the introduction of LCE reform in South Africa using a democratic basis (Bantwini, 2010). Another reason for the spread of LCE reform during the early 1990s, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa was the adoption of global agendas for education (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Vavrus et al., 2011). Examples include the adoption of Education for All (EFA) goals, which highlighted improved access and quality of education, and the Dakar framework for Action (Vavrus et al., 2011). For instance, the Dakar framework for Action recommended that education quality can be improved through "active-learning techniques" and a "relevant curriculum … that builds upon the knowledge and experience of (both) the teachers and learners" (Vavrus et al., 2011, p. 35). These notions reflected promotion of LCE reform through global agendas. The recommendations were underlined with the argument that LCE reform would bring about the improvement of learning achievement and outcomes (Bantwini, 2010). This promise motivated a number of countries that were showing increasing dissatisfaction with student performance at the basic and secondary levels of education (Bantwini, 2010).

LCE has also been promoted in sub-Saharan Africa and other non-western countries as the means to achieve:

- Their desire to break away from a colonial past and adopt a critical approach to pedagogy (Bantwini, 2010; Vavrus et al., 2011)
- Their desire to rid a nation's education system of its colonial, anti-African character and achieve access, equity, quality and democracy in education (Zeichner et al., 1998).
- A critical move from an "old curriculum" to a new pedagogical approach that fosters constructivism (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011; Vavrus, 2009)

LCE has also been promoted with beliefs that it is the effective antidote to prevalent teacher-centred and didactic classroom practices (O'Sullivan, 2004; Vavrus, 2009). An example of LCE-based education reform in sub-Saharan African countries is the New policy

of Basic Education for All (BEA) in Namibia in 1993 (Zeichner et al., 1998). The BEA supposedly

> *"…called for transition from teacher-centred to learner-centred classrooms, from an emphasis on rote learning to a focus on meaning-centred learning that harnesses the curiosity of learners and the excitement of learning" (Zeichner et al., 1998, p. 185).*

Other examples include the Outcome Based Education (OBE) reform in South Africa in 2004 (Bantwini, 2010; Vavrus et al., 2011), New Curriculum for Basic Education in Mozambique in 2004 (Guro & Weber, 2010), Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) in Ghana in 1995 (Vavrus et al., 2011). LCE reform has also been observed in countries such as Tibet, China, Taiwan, Guatemala, Nicaragua and El Salvador, Turkey in the late 20th century (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011; Carney, 2008).

2.4 CRITICISMS OF LEARNER-CENTRED EDUCATION (LCE) REFORM

LCE reform in developing countries has been criticised over the years. Such criticism is based on the argument that LCE reform is an example of uncritical policy transfer from one context to another (Crossley, 2008; Guthrie, 2011). Such criticisms also reflect concerns that policy transfer or borrowing has had the tendency to neglect differences between the context that such policies come from and the context where they are transferred (Guthrie, 1986). On this issue, authors and researchers in the field of Comparative and International Education have passionately argued that 'context matters' in policy transfer (Crossley & Jarvis, 2001). A strong statement on this issue reads thus:

> *Mainstream educational research is today … recognising that, while we can learn much from the experience of others, there are very real dangers in the uncritical transfer of policy and practice. With this has come renewed recognition of the fact that context (in its multiple-dimensions) matters (Crossley, 1999, p. 251)*

This comment is one of many examples that define the argument that context matters. Simply put, the argument states that complex relationships between education systems and their socio-cultural context must be given due consideration in the transfer of educational policy and practice (Crossley & Watson, 2003). Despite such arguments and

warnings however, policy transfer across different education systems have continued in the 21st century.

There are three essential criticisms of this trend. The first is that the transfer of LCE reform to developing countries is based a rhetoric, which exaggerates its significance and impact. As mentioned earlier in section 2.3, LCE was promoted and introduced to different countries for many reasons including the belief that it will improve the quality of their education systems. This promise has been loosely translated in many countries. LCE is often described in "national policy discourse" as a cure-all remedy to diverse problems that can be found within the education system (Sriprakash, 2010, p. 297). Such problems include low student retention, low student achievement, narrow examination-focused teaching, irrelevant curricula, supposedly non-existent learner participation, and promotion of a democratic community (Schweisfurth, 2011; Sriprakash, 2010). The problem is that this rhetoric attaches too many expectations to LCE, including those that are beyond its capabilities. Exaggerations of the impact of LCE reform in many countries have generated beliefs that student test scores will be greatly improved when there is a change from traditional or teacher-centred instruction to LCE strategies (Bantwini, 2010; Nykiel-Herbert, 2004). International literature on LCE suggests that such a result is not guaranteed across different classrooms. In other words, the hypothesis that LCE strategies produce higher student achievement compared to teacher-centred instruction does not hold across many classrooms, especially at the primary and secondary levels of schooling (D. Clarke, 2005; Guthrie, 2016).

The second criticism of LCE transfer is related to local translation, which means how it is interpreted within policy discourse, and understood by local stakeholders. As stated earlier, advocacy for LCE in developing countries has encouraged exaggerations of impact in policy discourse. Such advocacy has also allowed vague translations of LCE within local contexts. In an analytic treatise of curriculum reform within sub-Saharan Africa after the 1990s, Chisholm & Leyendecker emphasised that "the unclear nature of the understanding and actual application of learner-centred education" appeared to be one of the main problems of LCE reform in Namibia (2008, p. 201). Local translations of LCE reform in different countries can range from vague interpretations to oversimplified translations of

how LCE can be applied at the classroom level. For instance, the process of LCE reform in South Africa included suggestions that its revised curriculum "affirms commitment to Outcome-Based Education … which is an achievement-oriented, activity-based and learner-centred education process …" (Bantwini, 2010, p. 85). At the classroom level, teachers did not understand this "vision of the curriculum reform" and attached their "personal meanings" to it instead of seeking clarification (Bantwini, 2010, pp. 87-88).

The third criticism of LCE transfer is that it ignores the challenges that have been observed from its implementation in different countries. Such challenges include the practical and material constraints, and cultural differences of the local context (Schweisfurth, 2011). Research around LCE in developing countries has shown that curriculum reforms failed due to:

- inadequate classroom resources – such as learning and teaching materials (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011),
- state or working conditions of the classrooms – especially large class sizes and overcrowded classrooms (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b),
- teachers' capacity and previous education (Ginsburg, 2006; O'Sullivan, 2004) ,
- level of teacher training or lack of in-service professional training (Bantwini, 2010),
- teacher education that is incompatible with LCE (Mtika & Gates, 2010; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012),
- lack of teacher supervision (Sunzuma, Ndemo, Zinyeka, & Zezekwa, 2012),
- unrealistic time schedules for new curriculum (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b; Sikoyo, 2010),
- the heavy workload assigned to teachers – one of the underlying factors to reduced teacher motivation (Bantwini, 2010; Sunzuma et al., 2012),
- school examination systems, which are inconsistent with LCE (Ginsburg, 2006),
- language barriers – where the language of curriculum reform is different from the conversational language of the school community (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b; Sikoyo, 2010),
- student reactions towards unfamiliar classroom culture (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011; Mtika & Gates, 2010),

- beliefs or dispositions of the teachers (Brinkmann, 2015; Nykiel-Herbert, 2004),
- classroom learning culture and school ethos (Mtika & Gates, 2010),
- students expectations for classroom learning (J. Clarke, 2010), and the
- Culture of the local community – in form of beliefs and values that contradict the principles of LCE reform (J. Clarke, 2010; P. Clarke, 2003; Ginsburg, 2006).

The most relevant influences on LCE reform in this study will be discussed in more detail in section 2.6.

Overall, the fact that these challenges are consistently observed in its implementation suggest that advocacy for LCE can overlook the actual realities of different countries and their education systems. Many research studies have found that the classrooms, which adopted LCE reform in sub-Saharan Africa and other countries, have continued to reflect traditional or teacher-centred instruction (Harber, 2012; Mungoo & Moorad, 2015; Sikoyo, 2010). This can be considered as a sign that LCE reform has failed in such contexts. Examples include observations that:

- "Geography teaching and learning were teacher-centred and … both the teachers and their students devised strategies to maintain the (Knowledge) provider-receiver relationship" within the selected classrooms in Botswana (Tabulawa, 1997, p. 199)
- Selected classrooms in Uganda "reflected pervasive teacher control of pedagogic processes in the majority of lessons observed" (Sikoyo, 2010, p. 255)
- Within the selected Mathematics classrooms in Zimbabwe, "teachers rarely consult the syllabus when teaching, which …prevents the achievement of … student-centred methods …" (Sunzuma et al., 2012, p. 153)
- Selected classrooms in Botswana "revealed minimal learner-centredness … out of the 40 lessons the researchers witnessed …" (Mungoo & Moorad, 2015, p. 165)
- "the 'chalk and talk' or teacher instruction still dominates the classrooms …" in India (Brinkmann, 2015, p. 2)

The quotes above are used to highlight a sustained timeline of unchanging results recorded from LCE implementation in different countries.

It is important to note at this point that not all research that identifies the challenges of LCE reform advocates more critical policy transfer to developing countries. In fact, many of the research studies conducted on LCE reform over the past two decades have done either one of two things:

a. Presented negative results from LCE implementation, identified factors or challenges that led to those results and suggested that LCE reform can still be successful as long as those 'technical issues' are addressed.
b. Presented positive results from LCE implementation, and rebuffed the view that LCE reform is prone to failure in developing countries.

The second set of research studies is less prevalent than the first, even though it is also uncompromising in the attempt to advocate LCE reform across different contexts. Such research includes case studies of classrooms where a new curriculum has been introduced (Jordan et al., 2014); surveys of stakeholders' views on the implementation of LCE reform (Croft, 2002), and experimental studies of student achievement in classrooms where student-centred methods have been applied (Odom, Stoddard, & LaNasa, 2007). However, these set of research studies have also been criticised for flaws in research design, methodology, research arguments and conclusions. For instance, some of these studies neglect an examination of actual classroom processes and generate evaluations of LCE reform from surveys or interviews conducted with teachers, school administrators and policy makers (Emeh, Isangadighi, Asuquo, Agba, & Ogaboh, 2011; Udo, 2010). This approach to research design raises concerns about the validity of their research findings. In other words, such research has only generated "self-reports" of LCE implementation and "… should not be interpreted as representing observable behaviours inside the classroom" (Guthrie, 2016, p. 9). Some experimental-design studies also use non-random samples, non-validated research instruments, or generalise beyond the scope and context of their research (Guthrie, 2011).

Critical analysis of the trend of LCE reform in developing countries has also highlighted the controversial role of aid agencies and national governments in promoting policy transfer to developing countries (Steiner-Khamsi, 2000; Tabulawa, 2003). A few researchers have

explained how aid agencies underpin the promotion of LCE reform as the ideal educational practice in developing countries (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Tabulawa, 2003). The stance of aid agencies in this debate has been described as evidently biased in pushing an agenda for liberal democracy (Tabulawa, 2003), naïve in promoting a one-size-fits-all approach to educational development (Carney, 2008; Pratt, 2002), and egoistic in downplaying the challenges that come with implementing LCE reform (Barrett, 2007). There are also arguments that the aid agencies support for LCE has also encouraged methodologically flawed and biased research around LCE reform in developing countries (Guthrie, 2016). For instance, a number of studies that contains positive findings and arguments in favour of LCE reform in developing countries are partly or wholly funded by aid agencies or designed for aid-funded educational projects (Jordan et al., 2014). In this case, such research "can have vested interests in reporting positive outcomes" (Guthrie, 2016, p. 4). International literature has also shown that national governments are partly responsible for the uncritical transfer of LCE reform to their education systems. Even though the rhetoric of policy transfer or policy borrowing might suggest that policy makers and educators in developing countries are "passive receivers' of educational goods", this is often not the whole story. In fact, literature around policy transfer has argued that some national governments have "uncritically adopted" educational policies for political gain (Ochs & Phillips, 2004).

There have been responses to different criticisms of LCE reform, especially the core argument that context matters in policy reform. As stated earlier, some researchers have argued that the challenges of LCE reform "can be transformed into opportunities", with the view that "it is possible to overcome … all of the challenges" (Ginsburg, 2006, p. 7). This stance is considered "technicist" in the international literature, due to its underlying belief that the different and multifaceted challenges of LCE reform can be resolved (Nkosana, 2013). There are also responses that point to different cultural and epistemological beliefs, as the more deeply seated influences on LCE reform, which cannot be readily resolved. Such responses suggest that there can be a compromise on the standards of LCE in different contexts. Such compromise would allow some aspects of LCE

to be negotiated during implementation. A notable example is drawn from Schweisfurth (2013a) who identified minimum standards for LCE in developing countries:

> *"Lessons are engaging to pupils, motivating them to learn (bearing in mind that different approaches might work in different contexts).*
> *Atmosphere and conduct reflect mutual respect between teachers and pupils. Conduct such as punishment and the nature of relationships do not violate rights (bearing in mind that relationships might still be relatively formal and distant).*
> *Learning challenges build on learners' existing knowledge (bearing in mind that this existing knowledge might be seen collectively rather than individualistically).*
> *Dialogue (not only transmission) is used in teaching and learning (bearing in mind that the tone of dialogue and who it is between may vary).*
> *Curriculum is relevant to learners' lives and perceived future needs, in a language accessible to them (mother tongue except where practically impossible) (bearing in mind that there will be tensions between global, national and local understandings of relevance).*
> *Curriculum is based on skills and attitude outcomes as well as content. These should include skills of critical and creative thinking (bearing in mind that culture-based communication conventions are likely to make the 'flavour' of this very different in different places).*
> *Assessment follows up these principles by testing skills and by allowing for individual differences. It is not purely content-driven or success based only on rote learning (bearing in mind that the demand for common examinations is unlikely to be overcome)."*
>
> (Schweisfurth, 2013a, p. 6)

2.5 COUNTRY CASE: LCE REFORM IN NIGERIA

The discussed criticisms of policy transfer in the international literature are also evident in the introduction of LCE reform to Nigeria. The limitations of LCE transfer in Nigeria are discussed here, but more detail on the transfer process and local translations will be addressed in the next chapter. A review of literature around education reform in Nigeria highlighted that LCE was adopted to conform to the global agendas for education in the 21st century. This process possibly contributed to the hype of LCE as the solution to the diverse problems of the education system, within the local literature. Such problems include: low access and equity in female education (Indabawa, 2000); low quality of education (Ayeni, 2012; Obioma, 2012); low quality of different subject curricula (Ajibola, 2008); poor student achievement especially test scores (Adesoji & Olatunbosun, 2008); curriculum overload (Maduewesi, 2003); low student motivation towards STEM subjects

(Ifamuyiwa & Akinsola, 2008); and disunity and lack of effective citizenship (M Adeyemi, 2010). These claims illustrate exaggerations of the significance and impact of LCE reform on the education system in Nigeria. It can be argued that they also amount to expectations that are beyond the capabilities of LCE reform.

As mentioned earlier in chapter 1, there is also increasing evidence that the local translations of LCE reform in Nigeria are overly simplistic. For instance, the process of advocating and introducing LCE has extended over three decades, and many recommendations of "learner-centred", "student-centred", "progressive" and "constructivist" approaches for curriculum design and classroom learning have been made during this period. Such recommendations are included in the keynote speeches of policy makers and educators at academic conferences or national broadcasts; academic and opinion articles about the state of education; news articles on education reform, and accounts of research conducted on student achievement, school effectiveness, teacher education, teacher effectiveness, and student motivation. The problem is that the terms associated with LCE such as 'learner-centred' and 'student-centred' are either used ambiguously or oversimplified in translation. These circumstances have encouraged personal interpretations and loose definitions of LCE among stakeholders. It is not unusual to read research accounts with oversimplified interpretations of LCE[7]. It is also quite common to observe inaccurate translations and use of terms associated with LCE among teachers and school administrators.

This situation supports the view that uncritical transfer of LCE reform is ongoing in the Nigerian education system. Policy makers and educators have continued to advocate the implementation of LCE across different levels of schooling (Ahmad, 2016; Ahmadi & Lukman, 2015; Igbokwe, 2015). It is possible that this stance is motivated by the desire to adapt to the will of aid agencies who have been supporting different educational projects in the country. It is also argued that many education reforms in Nigeria have been carried out with political bias. However, the most plausible explanation is that policy makers have

[7] More detail about these issues are included in Chapter 3

overlooked the accounts of problematic LCE transfer to other countries. In other words, policy makers are most likely aware of, but they have ignored the problematic nature of LCE implementation in order to introduce it in Nigerian schools. This is most likely due to political reasons.

Research around LCE reform in Nigeria is also lacking. There are no records of exploratory research conducted prior to the introduction of LCE reform. Evaluative research since the implementation of LCE reform in different schools are also unavailable in the local literature. While some research has been conducted on LCE in Nigerian schools during the last decade, the bulk of these studies are quasi-experimental experiments on the application of a single strategy in a classroom (B. A. Adeyemi, 2008; Ajiboye & Ajitoni, 2008; Akinbobola, 2010; Kolawole, 2008; Nneji, 2011). Examples include the use of a pictorial organizer in Akinbobola and Afolabi (2010), the use of a concept map in Adesola (2013); the use of a cooperative learning workbook in Christian and Pepple (2012). In these studies, a single activity such as the creation of mind maps, group activity or the use of plays was identified as a LCE strategy. The strategy was then applied to a group of students in a classroom. The set of students who did not partake in the experiment were labelled as the control group while those who were taught through the supposed LCE strategy were labelled as the test group. A skills test or examination was conducted at the end of the experiment for members of the test and control groups and the student scores were compared. These test scores were then used to argue that the application or use of LCE strategies generates better student performance than traditional teaching methods.

The described research studies have a number of limitations. The first is the reduction of LCE to the application of a singular activity. As mentioned earlier, such practice illustrates poor translations of LCE among educators and researchers in the education system. LCE is often misinterpreted and misrepresented as one activity rather than a combination of principles, approach and practice. The discussion of the distinctive features of SCI in section 2.2, highlighted the fact that LCE and SCI constitutes more than the application of single or multiple methods of teaching in a classroom. The second limitation is reflected in research design. The necessary background data on research participants were not disclosed in the described research studies. This casts doubt on the capabilities of

students, which were supposedly selected for the test and control groups. In other words, low and high achieving students may have been unequally sorted into both groups. For instance, in a quasi-experimental study of the effects of LCE strategies on secondary school students in Nigeria, Ajiboye and Ajitoni (2008) stated that nine schools, and one classroom in each school were randomly selected for their research. However, the two researchers did not reveal any details about those randomly selected schools and classrooms, or the capabilities of the students in those classrooms prior to the research. This is important because some Nigerian schools place students of similar abilities and achievement levels in the same classroom. In such circumstances, the fact that students in the test groups later on scored better than those in the control group, may be because they were already high achievers.

The third limitation is in the calculation of significant difference between test scores of students in the test and control groups. Many of the described studies claim through quantitative analysis of test scores that there was a significant difference in the performance of students in the test group after the LCE strategy was applied. For instance, in a quasi-experimental study of the effects of LCE strategies on secondary school students in Nigeria, Akinbobola and Afolabi (2010) recorded significant difference between student achievement before the use of a pictorial organiser and afterwards. They argued that an index value of 0.34 shows a significant relationship between the teaching approach and student scores. The problem with such deductions is that they are calculated without accounting for confounding variables such as students' prior knowledge and capabilities. The deductions are also based on analysis of co-variance, but fail to show if the calculated level of significance is actually relevant or not. Other problems include observations that the bulk of available research on LCE in Nigeria is not about the recent curriculum reform and that there are no records (known to the researcher) of local research that has explored the recent introduction of LCE reform to secondary schools. Available research is mostly based on poor translations of LCE as a singular activity devoid of underlying principles and process. Moreover, they are predisposed with the use of quantitative research designs to argue that LCE strategies will improve student scores across different classrooms and schools. These observations point at the need for more comprehensive

and methodologically valid research on LCE implementation in Nigeria. This research addresses some of these concerns through:

1. A more critical approach to exploring SCI implementation in Nigerian secondary schools
2. The use of empirical investigation to validate whether or not there are changes to classroom practice in different schools, due to the recent curriculum reform
3. The use of a qualitative research design to gain first-hand accounts from stakeholders about the reality of their classroom experiences
4. The addition of students' views to that of teachers and school administrators to generate a more comprehensive grasp of stakeholders' perspectives towards LCE reform and classroom practice.

The qualitative research design also allows the researcher to analyse the links between: (a) viewpoints of different stakeholders and (b) the experiences of LCE implementation. This goes beyond descriptive reports of what the stakeholders, especially teachers and students said or did during research.

2.6 CIVIC EDUCATION: DEFINITIONS AND TREATISE IN INTERNATIONAL LITERATURE

Across international literature, Civic Education is described as the education of a citizen, and citizens are described as members or prospective members of a community (Crittenden & Levine, 2016). There is an understanding that civic education transmits knowledge about the values, norms, principles, beliefs, commitment, actions and processes related to members of a community, and the acknowledgement that civic education varies across different contexts and communities (Crittenden & Levine, 2016). However, most references to civic education in different national systems is in relation to a political process (Branson & Quigley, 1998; Quigley, 2000). For instance, Civic education is commonly defined as the education of citizens in democratic political systems (Quigley, 2000). Based on this definition, civic education is described as a body consisting of three components - civic knowledge, civic skills, and civic virtues/dispositions (Branson &

Quigley, 1998; Galston, 2004; Quigley, 2000; Youniss, 2011). Civic knowledge has been described as what citizens must know; civic skills as the intellectual skills to function, act and participate as citizens, and Civic virtues are the essential traits to maintain and improve constitutional democracy (Branson & Quigley, 1998; Quigley, 2000)

The treatise of Civic education in international literature has also emphasised its importance, role and potential impact. International literature records that civic education is the major means to sustain the knowledge and understanding of the political values of a nation; promote democratic culture, to help citizens learn more about civic affairs; enhance the participation of citizens in civic and political affairs and change citizens' opinions about civic issues (Branson & Quigley, 1998; Galston, 2004). For such reasons, school-based civic education is highly recommended across international literature (Youniss, 2011). Some authors have argued that formal schooling can and should play a major role in developing civic skills, virtues and dispositions in students (Branson & Quigley, 1998). Such authors argue that the introduction of civic education programmes and lessons in schools can enable the overall development of students' character (Branson & Quigley, 1998).These ideas roughly capture the process of advocating civic education as a subject to be taught within formal institutions in different countries (Torney-Purta, Schwille, & Amadeo, 1999).

Another interesting aspect to its treatise is the conflicting discourse on what civic education as a subject should cover across different countries. For instance, there are different views about whether or not civic education should propose democracy as the ideal political culture and cover issues of ethnicity, integration, diversity/pluralism, indigenous culture/nationalism, gender, liberal democracy, morals, and religious consciousness (Crittenden & Levine, 2016; Torney-Purta et al., 1999). This list is not exhaustive and the discourse is not yet resolved, however there appears to be a consensus around the argument that the purpose of civic education in each country mainly determines its scope and content (Galston, 2004). Even if a test to this consensus is the advocacy for global citizenship education – a trend which promotes the teaching of the wider world issues and international concepts of social justice, diversity and human rights (Davies, 2006; Davies, Harber, & Yamashita, 2005). A much stronger consensus on civic

education within international literature is that participatory and 'active' methods should be used in teaching the subject (Feldman, Pasek, Romer, & Jamieson, 2007; Torney-Purta et al., 1999; Youniss, 2011). The matters highlighted here are also evident in the advocacy for civic education in Nigeria. For instance, the advocated content and scope of civic education in formal schools is informed by perceptions of national goals and values (Aroge, 2012; Falade, 2008; Nwaubani & Azuh, 2014). More importantly, there is increasing advocacy for democratic and student-centred teaching of civic education as a subject in Nigerian schools (Chimezie, 2011; Falade & Adeyemi, 2015; Jekayinfa, Mofoluwawo, & Oladiran, 2011).

This study acknowledges the positioning of civic education as a distinctive subject in the secondary school syllabus in Nigerian schools. However, the study focuses primarily on the teaching methods advocated for teaching civic education rather than the contents of the curriculum. The aims, contents and expectations for classroom practice of civic education within Nigerian schools are discussed further in the third chapter of this thesis.

2.7 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE LCE TRANSFER TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

The analytic account in section 2.4 has set the background to discussing factors that shape LCE reform in developing countries. This section draws from the international literature to present some of the factors that are already identified in previous research. This discussion provides the conceptual framework for the research design.

Awareness of LCE reform – Previous research has shown that the level of stakeholders' grasp of LCE can influence LCE implementation. Stakeholders include policy makers, school administrators, teachers and students, and understanding LCE reform starts from being able to accurately define the learner/student-centred approach. However, previous research on LCE has shown that stakeholders may be unable to define such concepts or be uninformed on how such practice is supposed to be implemented in a classroom setting (Bantwini, 2010). The main argument on this issue is that LCE reform has failed at the very basic level when reformers do not understand what they want to change (Attard, Di Iorio,

Geven, & Santa, 2010). For instance, the failure of LCE reform in Namibia and South Africa was primarily attributed to confusion about the meaning, content, scope and application of intended pedagogical changes (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). The fact that those who are supposed to implement LCE can be 'quite unfamiliar' with its form and application is also seen as the very basic barrier to pedagogical change in many countries (Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012).

A study of teachers' perceptions about the new curriculum reform in south Africa, found that teachers did not understand the content and vision of new reforms (Bantwini, 2010). This was because the teachers did had limited orientation training about LCE reform (Bantwini, 2010). It is also stated that the 'critical link' between policy reform and actual change in practice includes understanding the meaning of the educational change itself (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). Such observations and arguments suggest that adequate grasp of LCE is necessary for the successful implementation of LCE in local contexts. There are studies that disagree with the suggested impact of awareness on implementing LCE. For instance, a qualitative study of LCE reform suggested that teachers understanding of LCE reform were considerably consistent with the official policy in Uganda, yet they were unable to transfer their interpretations into classroom practice (Sikoyo, 2010). However, there is a common agreement that the level of awareness and understanding of LCE reform is connected to a successful or failed implementation.

In-service teacher training – the availability and standard of in-service teacher training has also been identified as a factor that influences LCE reform in different countries. Previous research has found cases where there is no training for LCE reform or the available training session is quite short (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011; Guro & Weber, 2010). A study conducted to explore education reform in Mozambique found differences between teachers' experiences of in-service training (Guro & Weber, 2010). Some teachers stated that they had not been through in-service training for LCE reform while others said that they had been through some training but described it as short and inadequate (Guro & Weber, 2010). Previous research has also found cases where in-service training did not reflect learner-centredness (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b). It is argued here that the fact that

teacher education is rarely learner-centred in countries where LCE reform has been introduced, shows that there are no suitable models on which teachers can base their classroom practices (Schweisfurth, 2011).

Previous research has recorded teachers' complaints about the quality of training undertaken for LCE reform (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b). A study of curriculum change in Uganda, found out some teachers were unsatisfied with the quality of training received for LCE reform (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b). The teachers argued that their training experiences did not model the application of LCE strategies in the classroom context (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b). A study of LCE reform in Turkey also recorded teachers' descriptions of their in-service training sessions as too theoretical and abstract (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011). These observations suggest that in-service teacher training is also important to LCE implementation in different countries. The level of importance is however up for debate. For instance, previous research has also found many cases where teachers' approach to classroom practice often remain teacher-centred despite participation in in-service training for LCE (Brinkmann, 2015; P. Clarke, 2003; Mohammed & Harlech-Jones, 2008). In other words, previous research shows an important though possibly moderate relationship between the level and standard of in-service teacher training and the successful implementation of LCE reform in different countries.

Classroom and learning conditions – Previous research has also shown that the state of the classroom and available resources can influence LCE reform. There are suggestions of a standard classroom environment for the successful implementation of LCE in the international literature. For instance, the most ideal student-centred classroom is described as a classroom with: (a) comfortable physical conditions, (b) space that will allow the use of student work stations instead of desk rows, and (c) a class size that adds up to about twelve students (Di Napoli, 2004; Jones, 2007). In a more practical sense though, good buildings, reasonable electricity, a comfortable classroom environment, moderate class sizes and availability of the relevant learning aids, are considered to be sufficient for LCE implementation in different schools (O'Sullivan, 2004). However, previous research shows that a basic level of classroom resources is hardly available in

developing countries. Many schools are described as low-resourced as lessons are taught in overcrowded classrooms, poor school buildings, without constant electricity supply and the appropriate learning aids (O'Sullivan, 2004; Sunzuma et al., 2012; Thanh, 2010). A study of classroom practice after LCE implementation in Tanzanian schools also identified large class sizes as an obstacle to teaching and learning (Barrett, 2007). The disorganised seating of the students and overcrowding made it awkward for teachers to move around the classroom and monitor the students' work (Barrett, 2007).

Previous research has also recorded cases where lack of learning aids especially in classrooms that required specialised materials, became a barrier to the successful implementation of LCE (Sikoyo, 2010). The teachers' workload is also identified as a classroom condition that can be a barrier to LCE reform (Schweisfurth, 2011). The change to LCE is often described as a time-intensive project, which requires longer periods of planning, preparation and teaching. However, teachers usually have 40 minutes or less to teach within local contexts and they are often under pressure to complete the topics required in the subject syllabus (Sikoyo, 2010). This means that they have less time to spare for the range of activities required for LCE. A study of LCE reform in Zimbabwe found that some teachers managed a heavy workload by teaching about thirty lessons in a week (Sunzuma et al., 2012). Such experiences reduced teachers' motivation to devote time or energy to the requirements of LCE (Sunzuma et al., 2012). There are also cases where teachers raised objections to LCE reform due to heavy workload, and the extra demands of learner-centred methods (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010a). These observations suggest that classroom resources, physical conditions and teachers' workload can also be a limitation for successful LCE reform.

Examination and School culture – the examination system in different schools can influence LCE reform. Previous research has shown that assessment styles and the focus of examination in different countries can contrast with the expectations of LCE reform (Sunzuma et al., 2012). LCE rejects the definition of 'effective student learning' as the improvement of test scores only and promotes continuous assessment of student learning (Ginsburg, 2006; Tudor, 1993). However, some education systems are particularly focused

on attempts to improve test scores and even advocate LCE as the primary means to achieve their goals. A study of classroom practice in Zimbabwean schools after LCE reform found that teachers, students and school authorities were mostly concerned about the end-of-term summative examinations (Sunzuma et al., 2012). Such reaction prevents stakeholders from acknowledging and implementing LCE reform (Sunzuma et al., 2012). A study of LCE reform in Ugandan schools, found that the new requirements of continuous assessment were considered unrealistic and rejected by stakeholders (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b) . Some parents also transferred their children to other schools where summative examination systems were still in use because they were unsatisfied with non-statistical descriptions of academic performance, encouraged by LCE reform (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010b).

The rise of international testing has also been questioned on its role in relation to the transfer of educational policies from one context to another (Crossley, 2014). Authors in international literature highlight that international tests and global league tables have become a considerable influence on the educational policies of different nations (Crossley, 2012, 2014). Many more countries are using the data from international tests to judge the efficiency of their local education systems (Barrett & Crossley, 2015). Such countries also use the data to justify policy borrowing from top-performing systems (Crossley, 2014; Forestier & Crossley, 2015). Two events are occurring simultaneously – the continuing advocacy for LCE transfer across education systems and the increasingly global competitiveness of education systems (Crossley et al., 2017). The latter event seems mostly counteractive to the advocacy for LCE since global competitiveness has resulted in even higher focus on examination scores (Crossley et al., 2017). Some authors have logically argued that the influence of international trends such as the impact of global league tables and international testing poses a challenge to the principles and philosophy of LCE (Crossley et al., 2017).

Teachers' beliefs and preferences – Previous research has shown that the blend of teachers' perceptions, interpretations, and values influences classroom practice and

pedagogical change in different countries (Bantwini, 2010; Lin, Chuang, & Hsu, 2014; Tabulawa, 1998). The main argument here is that

> *"Teachers attach subjective meanings to what they know and think of classroom practices. These subjective meanings have implications for pedagogic change and understanding those meanings may provide … a more comprehensive picture of pedagogic change" (Tabulawa, 1998, p. 250).*

It is also noted that "their beliefs, values, experiences and daily challenges influence and shape the meanings that the teachers eventually attach to new reforms, which in turn play a vital role in their acceptance and classroom implementation" (Bantwini, 2010, p. 89). Both arguments suggest that teachers' beliefs determine whether or not they would be receptive or willing to implement LCE reform in their classrooms (Bantwini, 2010; Lin et al., 2014; Tabulawa, 1998). Previous research indicates that teachers' reactions to LCE reform can be determined by:

- how congruent they think new strategies are to their usual practices,
- their estimate of the personal cost of implementation,
- their thoughts about how relevant such methods are to student achievement, and
- their thoughts about feasibility of the requirements of reform (Lin et al., 2014)

Some research studies have recorded different reasons for: (a) teachers' failure to implement LCE reform in their classrooms, (b) unenthusiastic teacher reactions to the requirements of LCE reform, or (c) positive teacher reactions to LCE reform, which is dampened by eventual failure in classroom implementation (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011; Sikoyo, 2010; Sunzuma et al., 2012). Such reasons include suggestions that teachers were restrained by their school conditions, poor in-service training, heavy workload, poor monitoring or supervision, and the examination-focused education system (Hulya K Altinyelken, 2010a; Sikoyo, 2010).

However, other research studies indicate that teachers' decisions on pedagogical change are mainly due to teachers' choices rather than the technical issues identified above. They suggest that teachers decisions on classroom practice are informed by their pedagogical assumptions or beliefs (Tabulawa, 1998). A case study on the implementation of a SCI

project found that teachers had personal beliefs about their roles in classroom practice, the use of collaboration for all learning strategies, how to assess students and how to motivate students (Pedersen & Liu, 2003). Such beliefs were considered to be the most significant factor that determined the teachers' choices and response to the project (Liu & Littlewood, 1997). There are arguments in the international literature that teachers' perspectives have been erroneously ignored as a rational explanation for unchanging classroom practices after LCE reform (Tabulawa, 1998). Teachers' actions during classroom practice can also be influenced by long-term experience of teaching or their cultural values (Brinkmann, 2015; P. Clarke, 2003). A study of LCE reform in Botswana found that teachers' assumptions about the nature of knowledge, perception of their students, and of the goal of education and schooling, influenced their classroom practice and had implications for their reactions towards LCE reform (Tabulawa, 1998). A study of classroom reform in India also found that the cultural constructions of teacher thinking motivated pedagogical practice within their classrooms (P. Clarke, 2003). These examples of previous research confirm that teachers' beliefs and preferences can be shape their reactions to LCE reform. However, the examples also present different perspectives on the extent to which the process of LCE reform is determined by the teachers' choice and preferences.

Students' beliefs and preferences – students' beliefs can also determine their reactions to LCE reform. This point is a less researched but relevant topic around curriculum reform and pedagogic change (Mac An Ghaill, 1992). Previous research on the relationship between students' views and LCE has shown that students have their own constructs about what is important for learning and how classroom practice should be conducted (J. Clarke, 2010; Elen et al., 2007; Guthrie, 2015; Tabulawa, 2013). A study of curriculum innovation in an English secondary school, found that students had personal understandings and distinctive reactions to curriculum change (Mac An Ghaill, 1992). A study of LCE reform in China also found that Chinese students have their own expectations for how teachers should behave in their classrooms (J. Clarke, 2010). The Chinese students did not expect to be in 'equal relationships' with their teachers, but expected their teachers to have more power in their classrooms (J. Clarke, 2010). The Chinese students also chose not to challenge their teachers, to prioritise respect for them and expect knowledge to flow from

their teachers, in order to maintain hierarchy in the classroom (J. Clarke, 2010). These features are also evident in African classrooms. A study of LCE reform in Botswanan classrooms found that the students employed different strategies to keep their teachers in an information-giving role (Tabulawa, 1998).

Previous research also shows that students' expectations and preferences for classroom practice can be informed by cultural values, assumptions about the nature of knowledge and perceptions about the goal of education and schooling (J. Clarke, 2010; Tabulawa, 1997, 1998). A study of LCE reform in Hong Kong found that students' preferences for classroom practice were based on didactic/transformative views of knowledge and cultural understandings of the student and the teachers' role in learning experiences (Ng, Murphy, & Jenkins, 2002). These arguments suggest that an unenthusiastic students' reaction to LCE reform may not necessarily indicate resistance as previously argued in the international literature (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011; Tabulawa, 1998). Instead, such reactions can be interpreted as manifestations of students' active choices for classroom practice. For instance, previous research found that there is a high potential for students to indicate preference for teacher-led instruction (Tabulawa, 1997, 1998; Tan, 2015).

Culture – international literature records that cultural values can also influence LCE implementation in different countries. Culture is considered as a complex and wide-ranging concept in the international literature (Sternberg, 2007). It is difficult to attach one definition to the term given the diverse meanings attached to it in international literature. Culture has been defined as a cover term for the beliefs, behaviours, values, and other characteristics common to the members of a particular group or society (Cliffnotes 2016). It is common to observe references to different national cultures in international literature. However, the suggestion that culture can be innate and unrelated to experience is debateable among different authors. In this study, Culture is defined as

> *the set of attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviours shared by groups or communities, and passed on from a generation to the following generation through language or other means of communication (Sternberg, 2007, p. 5).*

This definition easily covers a collection of norms, customs, values and traditions, often identified as characteristic of different countries. This definition allows the view that there can be a Nigerian culture or a set of attitude, values, beliefs and behaviours shared by Nigerians. However, it would also acknowledge that Nigeria is made up of different ethnicities with cultural values that are distinctive to each tribe. This event is described as the existence of a subculture within a larger culture (Spencer-Oatey, 2012).

Previous research has shown that cultural beliefs about the nature of knowledge, how knowledge can be acquired, teacher and student roles, and the nature of learning relationships, can conflict with underlying assumptions of LCE (Ginsburg, 2006). A study of LCE reform in Namibia found that classroom practices were based on cultural beliefs that did not agree with the principles of LCE (O'Sullivan, 2004). The manifestations of the community culture included the existence of hierarchical relations between adult-teachers and young-learners, and the desire to uphold valid knowledge in learning experiences (O'Sullivan, 2004). Such beliefs are in contrast with the values of LCE reform where teachers and learners are expected to contribute equally to learning, and knowledge is considered to be made of socially negotiated constructs rather than valid truths (Ginsburg, 2006).

Previous research has also found that the cultural beliefs of education stakeholders especially teachers and students shape their reactions and receptiveness to LCE reform (Brinkmann, 2015; D. Clarke, 2005; P. Clarke, 2003; Elen et al., 2007; Ginsburg, 2006; O'Sullivan, 2004; Tabulawa, 1997; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012) A study of LCE reform in India found that cultural constructs defined teachers' thinking and underlined pedagogical practices in classrooms (P. Clarke, 2003). Such cultural constructs also influenced the teachers' reactions to LCE reform (P. Clarke, 2003). A study of LCE reform in India also found that teachers expressed preference for hierarchical student-teacher relationships, as informed by their cultural beliefs (Brinkmann, 2015). Similarly, a study of LCE reform in Botswana found that students' actions during classroom practice reflected cultural beliefs about the role of teachers and students (Tabulawa, 1998). Students in the researched classrooms considered and acknowledged their roles to be the recipients of teachers' knowledge, and employed strategies to keep their teachers in the information-giving

position (Tabulawa, 1998). In this way, previous research suggests that cultural beliefs can shape the expectations that teachers and students have for their learning experiences, and consequently determine their reactions to LCE implementation (Brinkmann, 2015).

Cultural beliefs and values can include the epistemological beliefs of a community and the underlying principles to the acquisition of knowledge within learning environments. For instance, some community cultures embody the cultural/epistemological belief that knowledge is independent of the learner and should be transmitted from the knower to the learner. Such cultural/epistemological beliefs are evident in the culture of African communities. African communities reflect cultural/epistemological beliefs that knowledge is objective and consists of valid truths. African communities also reflect cultural beliefs in the transmission of knowledge from the expert and experienced adult to the young uninformed and unexperienced learner within learning environments (Avoseh, 2013; Omolewa, 2007). African communities also value hierarchical relationships between adult-teachers and young-learners. Such beliefs contradict the concept of knowledge, the process of knowledge acquisition, and the teacher and student roles in learning that are reflected within LCE (Ginsburg, 2006; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). Such contradictions can also explain the reactions that education stakeholders from particular communities or cultures would have towards LCE implementation in their classrooms. For instance, in a study of LCE reform in Botswana, the cultural/epistemological beliefs of students especially the internalised views about the process of acquiring knowledge and the role of teachers and students provided an explanation for students' satisfaction with teacher-centred instruction in their classrooms (Tabulawa, 1997).

A conceptual framework

The emerging picture from this discourse suggests that different factors can influence LCE implementation in different countries. The factors highlighted in this section include the awareness of LCE reform; the availability, standard and form of in-service teacher training on LCE; the classroom and learning conditions of a school context; the examination-orientation and community culture of a school context; the beliefs and preferences of teachers and students in a classroom context; and the cultural/epistemological beliefs of teachers and students in a classroom context. The relationship between these factors and LCE reform is depicted in the diagram below:

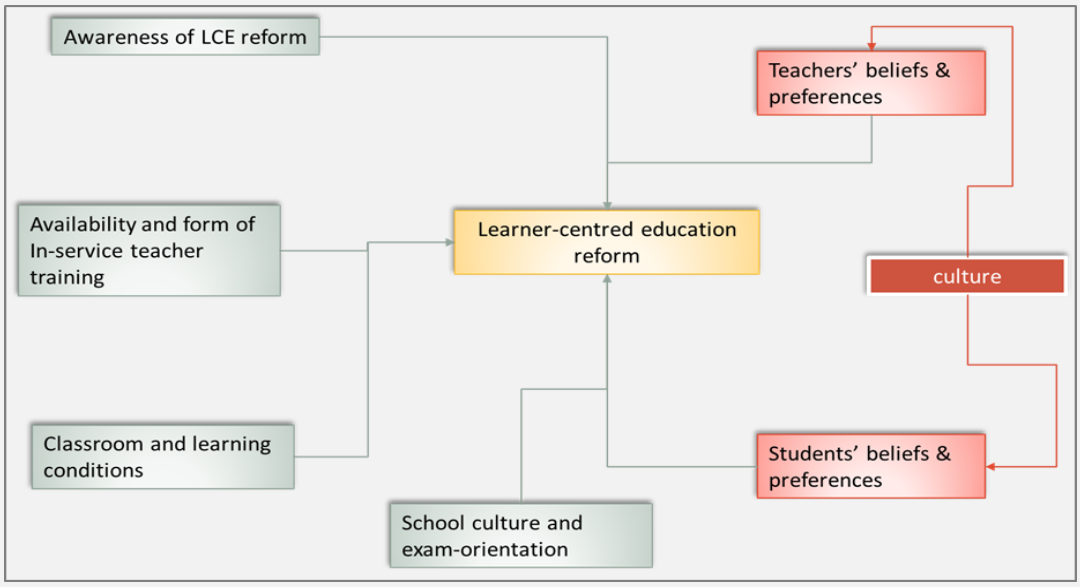

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework: factors that can influence LCE reform within the classroom

2.8 SOME PROBLEMS IN DEFINING CLASSROOM PRACTICE: FORMALISTIC OR MORE LEARNER-CENTRED?

The arguments around LCE transfer in the international literature have recently highlighted concerns about how to define classroom practice after LCE implementation. This is because a number of studies have defined classrooms, which contain some but not all components of LCE as more learner-centred (Brodie et al., 2002). This includes cases

where the observed classroom practices did not match the standards or principles of LCE on:

a. The role of the teacher – where teachers are expected to be facilitators rather than the information givers
b. The students' responsibility in the classroom – where the students are expected to participate in constructing knowledge and be responsible for learning in their classrooms.
c. The activities allowed during a lesson – where teachers and students are expected to engage in group discussions, group work and other activities during a lesson
d. The nature of student-teacher relationships – where students and teachers are expected to have less hierarchical structures in interaction and learning
e. Principles that inform classroom practice – where classroom practices are expected to be informed by constructivist views of knowledge, an individualistic approach to teaching, and the desire to negotiate rather than merely validate learning.

In such circumstances, the researchers accept that observed classroom practices cannot be defined as learner-centred 'in every respect' even though they reflect some features of LCE (Croft, 2002; O'Sullivan, 2004). For instance, a case study of LCE reform in Namibian schools found that teachers used different activities while teaching but dominated the learning experiences in their classrooms (O'Sullivan, 2004). The researcher therefore concluded that the observed classroom practice indicated a shift towards 'active teaching', but not completely towards learner-centredness (O'Sullivan, 2004).

The described studies have been used to justify views that a compromise can be made on how to define observed classroom practices in different countries. Especially classroom practices that are affected by conditions of learning in developing countries. The compromise perspective states that a contextualised interpretation of LCE can be applied in low-resourced contexts (Brodie et al., 2002; Croft, 2002; Mtika & Gates, 2010; Schweisfurth, 2013a). This compromise allows researchers to move away from the 'crude binary codes' of what is teacher-centred and what is learner-centred (Barrett, 2007; Croft, 2002; Schweisfurth, 2011). It is also based on the view that polarising styles of classroom

practice potentially undermines the fact that different teaching styles can coexist in one classroom (Barrett, 2007; Brodie et al., 2002; Elen et al., 2007). The compromise perspective is also supported through arguments that dichotomies of learner-centred and teacher-centred practices are often 'false' or 'overly simplistic' representations of what happens in the classroom (D. Clarke, 2005; O'Reilly, 2013). Overall, the advantage of a contextualised interpretation of LCE is that it helps to overcome deductions that LCE reform has failed because its standards were not met in their entirety (Brodie et al., 2002; Mtika & Gates, 2010; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012).

There are criticisms of the compromise perspective however in the international literature. The main criticism is that in redefining LCE for low-resourced contexts, the compromise perspective will continue to encourage already prevalent arguments that LCE is failing in developing countries due to contextual factors alone. In other words, the compromise perspective enables researchers to overlook increasing evidence in the international literature that the problematic implementation of LCE is an outcome of resistance to 'progressive' or 'constructivist' strategies of learning in non-western cultures (Guthrie, 2016). This argument maintains that classroom practices reflects the culture of non-western countries, which will remain with or without the constraints of contextual factors and the introduction of LCE itself. Critics of the compromise perspective indicate that this potential outcome is being disregarded by those who suggest that LCE should be redefined for local contexts (Guthrie et al., 2015). There are researchers who advocate for a contextualised LCE by admitting that some cultural beliefs will remain unyielding to its implementation (Brodie et al., 2002; O'Sullivan, 2004; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012). However, their argument is criticised on the basis that it suggests that 'constructivism' or LCE standards should remain an ideal pursuit for educational quality in contexts that are rooted in realist ontology and revelatory epistemologies (Guthrie et al., 2015; Vavrus, 2009). This runs the risk that those who advocate contextualised LCE have adopted the attitude that constructivist beliefs and individualistic values of western countries are superior to the realist beliefs and collectivist values of other countries.

Critics of the compromise perspective indicate that differentiation of classroom practice should be sustained in researching LCE reform in different countries. This is because

teacher-centred and learner-centred practices are not differentiated by the methods used, the teachers' level of training, classroom and learning conditions, or any other technical issue. Instead, the two approaches to pedagogy are differentiated through the beliefs and dispositions of the teachers and students in the classroom (Guthrie et al., 2015). Especially, beliefs that are informed by their lived experiences in a community and the culture of that community (P. Clarke, 2003). Therefore, successful LCE implementation should be interpreted by expressed beliefs about the nature of knowledge and how knowledge should be transmitted, the nature of teacher and student roles, and the form of student-teacher relationship in the classrooms (Tabulawa, 1997, 1998). Its critics also point out that a key disadvantage of the compromise perspective is the fact that it can allow 'just about anything' to be interpreted as fair success in LCE reform (Schweisfurth, 2013a).

There are interesting arguments from those who advocate contextualised LCE, but the most compelling argument is from those who criticise it. The critics point out an urgent need to define classroom practice and consequently reveal the influence of cultural beliefs on LCE reform. They also encourage more in-depth analysis of classroom experiences and realities, when researching LCE reform in different countries. Defining observed classroom practice in the selected school classrooms in this study also achieves two objectives. The first is to confirm whether or not changes have occurred in classrooms since the implementation of LCE reform. The second is to reveal traces of cultural beliefs within classroom practice, and in this way, point out the influence of cultural beliefs on LCE reform.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has provided a definition of SCI as a concept that echoes LCE principles, but with particular focus on classroom practice. It has also presented an account of the distinctive features of SCI in order to set this study on course to investigate adequate translations of SCI instead of the oversimplified versions that are prevalent within local research studies in Nigeria. The chapter also provided an analytic review of the advance and promotion of LCE reform within developing countries. This review highlighted the

criticisms and methodological concerns of the research around LCE reform across different countries, in order to argue for a more critical approach to inquiry in Nigeria. The concerns around LCE reform in Nigeria, and the observed gaps in the local literature are also discussed to make a case for qualitative investigation of SCI implementation in Nigerian schools.

An account of the different factors that can influence LCE reform in developing countries has been provided to generate a conceptual framework for this study. This account highlights the observation that both contextual factors and cultural beliefs can influence LCE reform in developing countries. A review of debates in the international literature about how to define classroom practices in relation to SCI was provided in the final section of this chapter. This account provides the background to interpret the observations of classroom practice related to SCI, which is included in the findings of this research. The next chapter contains an account of the history of education reform in Nigeria and the events that led to the introduction of LCE reform.

A people without the knowledge of their past history, origin and culture is like a tree without roots. Marcus Garvey

Chapter III: Nigerian educational context and Local translations of LCE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains a historic account of education reform in Nigeria, which highlights the events that led to the introduction of LCE reform. This account provides evidence that inaccurate notions about the current state of classroom practice in Nigerian schools informed recent advocacy for LCE reform. The chapter begins by identifying two key assumptions around the current state of classroom practice in Nigerian secondary schools. The same section highlights how those assumptions were generated within local events in Nigeria and have been sustained through local literature on education reform. The main account of the local events and the contributions of local literature to education reform in Nigeria is presented in the next section. This account covers an important background to the process of education reform, and provides an understanding of the rationale behind steps taken to improve education quality at the secondary level of education.

The following section covers an analytic account of the socio-cultural context of education in Nigeria. This account reveals the links between culture and pedagogy before and after the introduction of formal education in Nigeria. It supports an underlying argument to this study that cultural values have influenced and continue to influence educational practice in Nigerian schools. This discussion provides the background to interpret traces of culture in the actions and reactions of teachers and students during classroom practice and in relation to SCI implementation, which are included in the findings of this research. The last two sections of this chapter are used to describe and discuss the local translations of LCE within the recent curriculum reform in Nigeria within the senior secondary school curriculum and the civic education subject syllabus in particular. This discussion continues from the earlier descriptions of LCE reform in Nigeria[8] to provide evidence that overly simplistic translations of SCI/LCE were introduced to the secondary education curriculum. This evidence is used to justify the decision to acquire the views of education stakeholders

[8] Presented in Chapters 1 and 2

(teachers, students and administrators) in this study to gain arguably more appropriate translations of SCI and its implementation.

3.1 ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT EXISTING CLASSROOM PRACTICE IN NIGERIAN SCHOOLS

Local research studies and opinion pieces have contributed to curriculum reforms at the secondary education level in Nigeria, for a long time. They make up the body of local literature that has shaped policy and practice by presenting assessments of existing practices and recommending preferred changes to the Nigerian education system (Ige, 2013; Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009). National events have also had comparable influence on secondary education reforms, since the 19th century. These two factors cannot be ignored in an account of the history of secondary education in Nigeria. Especially, given the evidence that both factors have generated and sustained a number of notions about secondary education in Nigeria (Moja, 2000). In the past three decades especially, local literature on education reform has contributed to the following beliefs.

The first is that classroom practice in most secondary schools is teacher-centred in the sense that it denies opportunities for classroom activities and student contributions to learning (Oyewole, 2016). This notion is often supported with claims that classroom practice needs to be student-centred to improve academic performance (Oluniyi, 2011; Udo, 2010). Some studies in the local literature have also argued that declining rates of student performance is the evidence that teacher-centred instruction is no longer adequate for student learning (Ige, 2013). The second notion is that engaging classroom practices such as SCI would be easier to implement within well-resourced private secondary schools (Adebayo, 2009; Agi, 2013; Härmä, 2013). This assumption is based on arguments in the local literature that most private secondary schools would find it easier to deliver quality education because they have better school and learning conditions than many public secondary schools (Adebayo, 2009; Thompson, 2013). The following account of the history of secondary education in Nigeria is used to argue that trending notions about classroom practice are subject to the failings of the local research studies that generate and sustain them; and therefore, require critical review.

3.2 THE TREND OF EDUCATION REFORM IN NIGERIA

Mid-1800s – 1950s: Colonial era and secondary education

The formal education system in Nigeria started during this period and included the establishment of the first set of secondary schools. These schools were created by Christian missionaries, who also designed the curriculum (Abdullahi, 2005; Alade, 2011). Nigeria became a British colony during this period and the colonial government tried to take over the existing secondary schools (Abdullahi, 2005). However, their attempt failed and new government secondary schools were set up instead. Nigeria initially consisted of two regions – the north and south, but amalgamated into a single colony in 1914. After amalgamating, the Islamic religion and culture of the north remained a significant feature of schools established in that area (Lemu, 2002). In other words, secondary education in Nigeria during this period encompassed three types of schools; the mission/grammar schools, government schools and Islamic schools. The mission/grammar schools were prevalent in the southern region and Islamic schools in the north. Education systems were also managed separately in the north and south regions of the country (Peshkin, 1967).The curriculum design for mission schools emphasised reading, writing, arithmetic and religion (Alade, 2011). The government schools modified this curriculum design to increase focus on science education (Abdullahi, 2005). The Islamic/northern schools focused on teaching Islam and Arabic (Abdullahi, 2005; Lemu, 2002).

During this period, local literature focused on the suitability of the curriculum to national interests and values. A number of authors suggested that the curriculum was unbalanced, in the sense that religion was given too much focus and content encouraged compliance to western norms (Abdullahi, 2005; Alade, 2011; Thovoethin, 2012). Other authors cited the disadvantages of a curriculum intended for white-collar jobs, in an agricultural economy (Alade, 2011; Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009). They maintained that the curriculum disregarded skill training, which was more essential for the economy, at that time (Alade, 2011). The third issue raised in the local literature was that graduates of mission schools seemed to lack the moral attitudes and values of the local culture (Peshkin, 1967). It was also argued that the syllabus did not reflect themes of national integration, which could have addressed

issues around amalgamating the north and south regions (Peshkin, 1967). On the whole, during this period local literature did not identify classroom practice as a source of concern in education, even though the teaching methodology was dominated by the teachers and involved lengthy explanations and recitation (Abdullahi, 2005; Peshkin, 1967; Tibenderana, 1983).

Mid-1950s – 1960s: post-colonial era and secondary education

Nigeria worked towards colonial independence during the 1950s and achieved this in 1960. During the 1920s and prior to independence, the nation was further divided into three regions – north, east and west (Imam, 2012; Peshkin, 1967). Education systems were managed individually within the three regions, in the sense that regional administrators were able to make new decisions and implement them (Abdullahi, 2005; Peshkin, 1967). This regionalised system of education, lasted through the years before colonial independence and after. New attempts to review the education system during this period led to the enactment of various education acts and the launch of the Ashby commission. The education acts included the 1948 and 1952 education ordinances and a series of regional education laws (Fabunmi, 2005; Imam, 2012). The 1952 education ordinance, for example, granted the three regions the right to develop and administer their own educational policies and systems (Fabunmi, 2005). The Ashby commission was a committee set up in 1959, to investigate the state of post-secondary and higher education in Nigeria, in order to improve employment opportunities for graduates (Asiwaju, 1972; Fabunmi, 2005). The commission presented its evaluation of the education system at that time and made recommendations for the future of Nigerian education (Asiwaju, 1972; Fabunmi, 2005; Imam, 2012). The committee's report was well received and its recommendations became a standard for future plans on secondary education (Alade, 2011; Asiwaju, 1972).

An example was the addition of technical and vocational schools to the existing secondary schools in Nigeria at that time (Oyelade, 2004). This event was linked to the Ashby report because the commission recommended the establishment of large technical institutes and the introduction of technical subjects to the secondary school curriculum (Alade, 2011;

Asiwaju, 1972). Teacher training colleges were also introduced during this period, because of the recommendations of the Ashby commission (Okafor, 1988; Oyelade, 2004). Other features of secondary education during this period, included a similar structure of secondary education across the three regions. Also, secondary schooling lasted for five years and retained the curriculum design of the previous era (Oyelade, 2004).

Local literature on education reform shifted focus to the Ashby Commission report during this period. Some local research studies noted that the Ashby Commission was mostly made up of foreigners and argued that their Anglo-American experiences shaped the nature of their reviews and recommendations (Asiwaju, 1972). They also contended that educational experiences during the post-independence years remained elitist and westernised, despite Ashby's attempt to emphasise skills development (Abdullahi, 2005; Asiwaju, 1972; Fabunmi, 2005). There were also arguments that curriculum review after the Ashby report did not include themes to encourage nationalism, integration and unity (Davis & Kalu-Nwiwu, 2001; Peshkin, 1967). However, adherents to the Ashby report were more prevalent in the local literature (Abdullahi, 2005; Aluede, 2006; Imam, 2012; Tibenderana, 1983). Such works emphasised that the main concerns of education were those already identified by the Ashby report. These included concerns about the disparate development of regional education systems, a reduced focus on skills development and poor teacher education (Fabunmi, 2005; Oyelade, 2004). Again, identified problems of the education system during this period, did not include classroom practice. There was increasing advocacy for better teacher education, but it essentially implied that going through teacher training would necessarily lead to academic excellence (Asiwaju, 1972). These views started to change in the following decade, triggered by the first-ever reference to standards of classroom practice, during the late 1970s.

Mid-1960s – 1980s: the era of nationalism and secondary education

National governance became controversial during this period, with the incidence of five military coups between 1966 and 1983. This affected the education system through neglect or change of education policies by the different administrations (Nwagwu, 1997; Uwakwe, Falaye, Emunemu, & Adelore, 2008). Responsibility for the education systems was also

divided between federal, state and local levels of government (Imam, 2012). This enabled state governments to take over some of the existing mission schools and some of the Islamic schools (Uwakwe et al., 2008). Education spending in Nigeria increased considerably during this period because a momentous oil boom occurred during the early 1970s and it boosted the economy (Freund, 1978). However, the oil boom was quickly destabilised by the 1970s recession and the resulting decrease in oil revenue also affected education funding (Imam, 2012; Nwagwu, 1997). By the early 1980s, education spending had reduced from 20% of the national budget to less than 5% (Freund, 1978; Woolman, 2001).

The first National Policy on Education (NPE) was introduced in 1977 and had the most remarkable influence on education, during this period. The events that contributed to the NPE included a national curriculum conference in 1969, the publication of a national development plan in 1970 and a seminar organised by education experts in 1973 (Abdullahi, 2005; Alade, 2011; Asaaju, 2015; Awofala & Sopekan, 2013). The NPE (1977) included newly identified aims for the different levels of education, a new system of education, comprehensive changes to the existing school curricula and the first-ever reference to standards of classroom practice. Two aims for secondary education were identified in the NPE – to prepare students for useful living within society and to prepare them for higher education (Emeh et al., 2011). A new structure was also introduced, referred to as the 6-3-3-4 system, which represented 6 years of primary, 3 years of junior secondary, 3 years of senior secondary and 4 years of tertiary schooling. In other words, the years spent in secondary education were increased to six years and split into two stages (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013; Thovoethin, 2012). Different curricula were designed for the various stages included in the NPE. Another main feature of the NPE was the first-ever references to requirements for classroom practice. For instance, the NPE (1977, 1981) also included statements that the government would take steps to implement 'educational activity (that) will be centred on the learner' (Federal Ministry of Education, 1981, p. 8). However, it did not include explanations of the aim and the steps that will be taken to achieve it.

It was also stated in the NPE that the 'government will ensure that the teaching methods employed in the primary school, de-emphasise the memorisation and regurgitation of

facts, (and) encourage practical, exploratory and experimental methods' (Federal Ministry of Education, 1981, p. 13). This was the most explicit statement on teaching methods, which implied that some teaching methods were now considered to be less relevant or more relevant for learning. Other statements about teaching methods in the NPE were less explicit, especially around secondary education. It was stated in the NPE that teaching moral and religious subjects through 'memorising of creed and facts' had become unsatisfactory (Federal Ministry of Education, 1981, p. 20). Instead, classroom practice for moral and religious subjects would now include the use of 'games and other activities involving team work' and 'role-playing' (Federal Ministry of Education, 1981, p. 20). It was also stated that training in citizenship would inculcate values 'through practical exercises' (Federal Ministry of Education, 1981, p. 21). Overall, the NPE contained references to standards of classroom practice, although most objectives included undefined terms and no mention of steps to attain them. The local literature recorded that the implementation of the NPE took place gradually across schools in the nation (Oyelade, 2004). This meant that almost all schools adopted a similar and national curriculum, although some states achieved this earlier than others (Okoroma, 2006; Oyelade, 2004).

Some research studies in the local literature responded to these events and started to emphasise concerns about the effects of changing administrations on education, the effects of reduced education funding and the need for education policy reform. Some researchers claimed that reduced funding had led to deteriorating school infrastructure, an inability to build new schools for an increasing student population and unpaid teachers' salaries (Imam, 2012; Nwagwu, 1997). At this time, local literature also redefined changes brought about by the NPE as constituents of the 6-3-3-4 system. In other words, references to the '6-3-3-4 system' started to cover assessment procedures, curriculum design and classroom practice (Adeyinka, 1991; Babafemi, 2007; Y. O. Lawal, 2013; Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009). Changes to the syllabus were well received at the outset, with claims that it resolved many of the evident flaws in the past curricula, such as the lack of vocational subjects and citizenship education (B. Adeyemi, Oribabor, & Adeyemi, 2012; Y. O. Lawal, 2013). However, after a few years of implementation, claims that the 6-3-3-4 system of education was failing started to emerge in the local literature. This signalled a departure

from the initial acceptance of the NPE's recommendations. Most authors did not clearly define which aspects of the '6-3-3-4 system' were failing and did not support their claims with valid evidence. They merely reiterated the unproven claims of individuals considered to be experts of the education system. Contradictory claims were also prevalent, with arguments that the 6-3-3-4 system did not encourage skills development, even though vocational subjects had been added to the curriculum (Alade, 2011; Ige, 2013; Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009).

Overall, a controversial depiction of classroom practice emerged during this period, enabled by statements in the NPE and poorly-conducted surveys and research on the state of education (Moja, 2000). Statements in the NPE enabled the spread of beliefs that classroom practice at the different levels of education essentially constituted memorisation, regurgitation of facts and lack of practical activities. The trend of relating education spending to problems observed in the education system also started during this period (Thovoethin, 2012). Such arguments continued to increase with the lure to privatisation and international aims for education, from the 1990s.

1990s – 2000: the global era and secondary education

As stated earlier, privatisation and international goals for education had major effects on education in Nigeria, during this period. The economic crisis of the mid-1980s led to the adoption of Structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) (Anyanwu, 1992). These were loans offered by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank during the economic crises. The IMF and the World Bank are aid agencies, which focused on economic development and providing assistance to developing countries. Their contributions however triggered the adoption of their values on different aspects of the Nigerian economy, including education. SAPs came with objectives, policies and recommendations interpreted as the values and preferences of the aid agencies (Anyanwu, 1992). These imposed values had significant impact on secondary education in Nigeria in relation to decentralisation and privatisation (Geo-Jaja, 2004). Decentralisation enabled the transfer of resource provision and control to state and local governments (Geo-Jaja, 2004). This meant that state and local levels were given more responsibilities to manage and provide

for their own schools, while the federal government retained responsibility for curriculum reform and budget allocation (Geo-Jaja, 2004). SAPs also required the privatisation of public institutions and encouraged the transfer of government-owned schools to private owners (Anyanwu, 1992; NCEMA, 2004). The local literature recorded that the promotion of decentralisation and privatisation in Nigeria enabled a dramatic spread of private school establishments thereafter (Geo-Jaja, 2004; Uwakwe et al., 2008).

Nigeria's acknowledgement and subscription to international/global aims for education came through participation in the world conference on Education for All (WC-EFA) in 1990. This event was also connected with Nigeria's relationship with development aid agencies (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). The goals and objectives for Education for All (EFA) were adopted, despite the fact that such goals were informed by ideologies from western and developed countries (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Tabulawa, 2003). For instance, the international goals for education reflected principles such as liberal democracy, democratic education and rights-based education (Geo-Jaja & Zajda, 2005; Tabulawa, 2003). Democratic education came with learner-centred pedagogies and these intertwined concepts quickly became the basis for curriculum reform in Nigeria during the 1990s (Moja, 2000). Democratic education represents the idea that education systems can be used to create a political culture, which sustains democracy (Harber, 1997). Learner-centred pedagogies represent distinctive methods of instruction, which allow democratisation processes to be adopted into teaching and learning spaces (Tabulawa, 2003; Vavrus et al., 2011). Even though learner-centred pedagogies were not explicitly promoted in the background document for the WC-EFA in 1990, some sections of the paper included this notion. As an example, a section of the document reads:

> *"Finally, an often neglected but vital resource that needs to be mobilised is the individual learner. The demand for, and participation in, learning opportunities cannot simply be assumed, but must be actively encouraged … Also, learners tend to benefit more from education when they are partners in the instructional process, rather than treated simply as 'inputs' or 'beneficiaries'." (Inter-Agency Commission, 1990, p. 89)*

This quote reflects the view that classroom practice should: (a) emphasise active participation and (b) contradict the notion that learners should be primarily recipients of learning. In recent times, researchers have pointed to the seemingly unbiased

recommendations at the WC-EFA as the transmitters of a progressive education reform to developing countries (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). Recommendations of teaching aids in the WC-EFA document were more explicit. The following extract is an example:

> *"Furthermore, the quality and delivery of basic education can be enhanced through the judicious use of instructional technologies … The definition of a suitable technology varies by societal characteristics and will change rapidly over time as established and new technologies (radio and television, computers, tele-facsimile machines, and various audio-visual instructional devices) become less expensive and more adaptable to a range of environments."(Inter-Agency Commission, 1990, p. 86)*

These recommendations were translated into education reform in Nigeria through extensive support for the use of learning aids during class activities (Abimbade, 1999). The local literature also reflected these events and persistent concerns from the previous era. For instance, the issues highlighted in WC-EFA became the trending topics in education reviews. Two significant evaluations of the Nigerian education system during the 1990s, were essentially focused on primary/basic education and funded by aid agencies (Moja, 2000). This emphasis on basic education possibly contributed to the neglect of secondary education. A survey of published research during this period clearly showed high attention to basic education; and so little on secondary education (Aluede, 2006; Umar, 1995; Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009).

The concerns highlighted in secondary education at this period, only involved the effects of reduced government spending and the advocacy for private schools. Both issues were also interwoven with subjective arguments. For instance, some researchers argued that academic institutions were unable to cope with rising rates of student enrolment, due to low education funding (Moja, 2000; Nwagwu, 1997). Local literature had reported that the enrolment rates in secondary schools were increasing with the addition of 200,000 to 400,000 students each year (Nwagwu, 1997). Local research studies argued that this situation necessitated the recruitment of more but poorly trained teachers, led to poor maintenance of school facilities, and led to the failure to keep up with the demand for more schools and the shortage of learning aids (Moja, 2000; Nwagwu, 1997). Research studies in favour of private schools, began to increase in the local literature, mostly supported by aid agencies. These studies promoted private schools as the antidote to the

problems of public schooling, especially the effects of low education funding (Adebayo, 2009; Agi, 2013; B. O. Lawal & Ayoade, 2007). In other words, private schools were presented as well funded schools that would not have to recruit poorly trained teachers and would be able to provide suitable school and classroom conditions for learning (Härmä, 2013). The arguments in these studies encouraged notions that most private schools would find it easier to manage different aspects of learning, than most public schools (Ekundayo & Alonge, 2012).

In these circumstances, minimal attention was given to the syllabus and classroom practice of secondary education. The few authors that focused on the curriculum, merely repeated arguments that the 6-3-3-4 system had failed to achieve its objectives (Ajetomobi & Ayanwale, 2010; Okoroma, 2006; Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009). However during the late 1990s, claims that secondary education was lacking in the use of learning aids and adequate pedagogies, began to emerge (Abimbade, 1999). As mentioned earlier, these themes were introduced in WC-EFA and had been spreading within basic education only. The late and spontaneous addition of these themes to secondary education, was therefore questionable. It reflected steps to project concerns identified in basic education onto secondary education. This would enable discourses within the local literature to circumvent inattention to secondary education during this period. Current classroom practice in secondary schools was soon contrasted with 'modern teaching methods and methodologies', along with claims that the former included the use of 'tedious' and 'lecture' methods (Abimbade, 1999). Some researchers admitted that the analysis of secondary education at this period was based on inadequate data (Moja, 2000). However, this did not discourage claims about classroom practice and the advocacy for learner-centred pedagogies. Claims about classroom practice were rarely justified with credible and detailed evaluations of the secondary school classrooms. Furthermore, it became evident that classroom practice was being problematized in response to the standards required within global agendas for education (Moja, 2000; Woolman, 2001). This process has intensified with a more explicit and aggressive push for LCE reform in the most recent era of education.

2000 – 2014: the era of progressive education reforms and secondary education

Over the past two decades, national plans and projects as well as global agendas for education have influenced secondary education in Nigeria (Bregman & Bryner, 2003; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). Such influences on education are associated because national plans are informed by the current agendas for global development (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013). In 1999, the national government introduced a Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme, designed to provide free and compulsory basic education (Ani, 2010). International collaborations on education contributed to this development, including WC-EFA in 1990, the 2000 millennium summit and a world education forum in 2000 (Oluniyi & Olajumoke, 2013). The UBE scheme led to a change in education structure, so basic education covers the initial nine years of schooling, previously categorised as the primary and junior secondary levels (Oluniyi & Olajumoke, 2013; Yusuf & Ajere, 2000). It also led to changes in the syllabus, by adding more themes from global agendas such as HIV/Aids, computer education and civic engagement (Alade, 2011; Yusuf & Ajere, 2000). In 2004, the fourth edition of the NPE was published, with new requirements that echoed global agendas for education (Oluniyi & Olajumoke, 2013). A National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) was also promoted between 2003 and 2007. NEEDS was aimed at 'wealth creation, employment generation, poverty reduction and value-orientation'; and emphasised education as the means to achieve these goals (Akpobasah, 2004, p. 2). The project was also supported by aid agencies and informed by global agendas, especially the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Akpobasah, 2004; Odekunle & Okuwa, 2012; Ojo, Abayomi, & Odozi, 2014).

National projects such as the UBE scheme, the NPE 2004 and the NEEDS strategy, embraced global agendas and transferred this into the subsequent process of education reform. In 2003, Nigeria participated in the biennale meeting of the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA). The conference also promoted learner-centred pedagogies during discussions about improving the quality of education in sub-Saharan African countries. The programme of the meeting included the following statement with the objectives for a session organised on '***Teacher development at the centre of pedagogical renewal***':

> *The panel calls for reflection on effective strategies for developing and strengthening the professional skills of teachers while encouraging learner-oriented educational practices. (ADEA 2003 Biennale program, pg13).*

This statement illustrated the continuous push for learner-centred pedagogies within attempts to redefine and improve the quality of education in Nigeria and other sub-Saharan African countries (Bregman & Bryner, 2003; Vavrus et al., 2011). In 2007, the secondary school curriculum was revised to reflect the recommendations and themes of the previously described events and agendas. This review was referred to as C2007 and it introduced changes to the education system, such as the addition of new themes to existing subjects, and the addition of new subjects to the syllabus (Ani, 2010). In addition, C2007 was notably publicised as the means to promote a 'learner-centred' approach to curriculum design and classroom practice (Alade, 2011; Awofala & Sopekan, 2013). Privatisation also continued during this period and local literature recorded that the bulk of private schools in Nigeria were established between 2000 and 2014. Some local research studies also observed increasing preference for private instead of public schooling in Nigeria (Adebayo, 2009; Saidu, Amali, Oniye, & Bello, 2013). This was justified by the notion that private schools delivered better quality education than most public schools (B. O. Lawal & Ayoade, 2007).

Similar to the previous eras of education, local research studies focused on the previously described events. Firstly, they emphasised the rationale and concerns about replacing the 6-3-3-4 system with the '9-3-4 system' of education. References to the 9-3-4 system implied changes to the education system after the UBE scheme was introduced (Ani, 2010; Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009). Some research studies justified the 9-3-4 system as an upgrade and solution to the failures of the 6-3-3-4 system but argued that the implementation process may be its Achilles' heel (Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009). It had become popular in the local literature during this period to argue that policy reforms fail during implementation (Asaaju, 2015; Babafemi, 2007; Okoroma, 2006). The local literature also brought attention to the implications of private school expansion and increasing enrolment rates. However, most research studies and opinion pieces on this theme were written in favour of privatisation (Agi, 2013; Ehigiamusoe, 2012; Ekundayo & Alonge, 2012). Such research

studies repeated the unscrutinised arguments in favour of private schools, that emerged during the previous period of education (Härmä, 2013; B. O. Lawal & Ayoade, 2007). They also reiterated arguments that low education funding was the cause of diverse problems in education; and stated that well-funded private schools would be exempt from such problems (Adebayo, 2009; Agi, 2013; Asaaju, 2015; Härmä, 2013; Kpolovie & Obilor, 2013). In other words, these studies suggested that well-funded private schools with better school and learning conditions would automatically deliver better quality education than most public schools (Omede, 2015; Saidu et al., 2013; Thompson, 2013). Some of the research studies conducted on this hypothesis justified their arguments by comparing examination results of students in public and private secondary schools (Ajayi, Haastrup, & Osalusi, 2010; Duruji, Azuh, & Oviasogie, 2014; B. O. Lawal & Ayoade, 2007). However, their research accounts were undermined by issues of validity and failure to account for confounding variables such as students' background and motivation in their analysis (Ekundayo & Alonge, 2012; B. O. Lawal & Ayoade, 2007). The fact that the limitations of these research studies were not challenged in the local literature helped to sustain the notion that education quality in Nigerian schools is entirely resource-dependent (I. A. Salami & Nweke, 2012).

C2007 has received much attention in the local literature during this era, which includes mostly positive reviews of the changes to the secondary school syllabus (Achor, 2012; Idris et al., 2012). However, responses to LCE ideas in C2007 within the local literature are either formed of untested claims about classroom practice from the previous era, or of contradictory statements about classroom practice. For instance, Awofala and Sopekan (2013) claimed that C2007 had introduced the use of SCI in classroom activities. However, Akinbobola (2010) and Awofala et al. (2013) have also argued that the introduction of LCE is needed in secondary schools because classroom practice remain deficient, teacher-centred and expository. In other words, some studies argued that SCI has already been implemented with C2007, while another set of studies implied that SCI has not yet been introduced or observed in classrooms since the implementation of C2007. This situation suggests that the local literature on LCE reform in Nigeria is either mistaken about the current state of classroom practice in secondary schools or on the argument that SCI has

been introduced through C2007. Such contradictory arguments about classroom practice and the popular assumption that quality education is entirely resource-dependent have become prevalent in the local literature. This study seeks to address them by presenting a more critical and valid account about C2007, especially the introduction of SCI within secondary schools in Nigeria.

3.3 CULTURE AND PEDAGOGY IN NIGERIA

A review of literature around culture and education in Nigeria, shows that culture has influenced different aspects of the education system since the pre-colonial era. The local literature records that cultural beliefs in Nigeria have had an observable impact on the aims of education, curriculum design and methods of instruction, for a long time (Omolewa, 2007; Shizha, 2013). This account draws from the local literature to provide a background to understand these links between culture and pedagogy in Nigeria.

Traditional lifestyle and education

The period before the missionaries arrived in Nigeria is often described as the traditional era in the local literature. According to historians, the lifestyle and culture of Africans in general influenced education or informal schooling in those days (Boateng, 1983; Mazonde, 2001; Shizha, 2013). Traditional communities worked through communal living in which all members of the community shared a common life (M Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002). This meant that community members shared responsibilities for different things, including the upbringing of the young ones. The traditional communities also functioned through hierarchical orders. Most communities were ruled by monarchs, and families were led by the parents or adult members of the extended family. Power relations between the elders/leaders and the young ones/subordinates were mostly autocratic and not equal. Traditional communities also sustained themselves through trade and skills cultivated by its members. Children primarily learned the trade or skill of their parents, but also had the option to receive training away from home (Ogundele, Oparinde, & Moronfoye, 2013). Cultural heritage was transmitted through lifestyle and oral communication, which

involved the use of folktales, legends, proverbs and myths (M Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002; Boateng, 1983). Traditional communities also worked in groups and encouraged members to develop a sense of obligation to the community (M Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002).

Local literature on culture and pedagogy in Nigeria recorded that this traditional lifestyle and culture was reflected in different aspects of education at that time. Communal living allowed all adult members of the community to be involved in the training and education of young ones. Parents and other adults in the family and community were also considered as potential teachers, guardians and role models for the young (Jekayinfa & Akanbi, 2013; Shizha, 2013). Hierarchical systems gave more authority to the adult-teacher in traditional learning environments and encouraged the young-students submission to authority (Le Vine, 1980; Ogundele et al., 2013). Teachers were expected to take control of learning and use discipline to enforce appropriate behaviour (Aboluwodi, 2015). Training for trade and skills encouraged apprenticeship and learning by doing. Young-students learnt from the adult-experts through observation, copying and performing (Michael B Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002; Marah, 2006; McDowell, 1980; Salia-Bao, 1989). Learning culture through transmission enabled adults to earn the status of credible sources of knowledge (Avoseh, 2013). Adults were thought to be the guardians of the knowledge passed on from their predecessors and experts by experience. Adult-teachers were expected to transmit valid knowledge to, and share helpful experiences with, young-students. Such knowledge and wisdom were rarely open to challenge. Learning through transmission therefore involved listening and asking questions when prompted (Marah, 2006; McDowell, 1980).

Communicating through oral literature also meant that adult-teachers could use wise-sayings and proverbs when teaching (Avoseh, 2013; Omolewa, 2007). Young-students were expected to learn such wise-sayings and proverbs by heart and recite them when prompted by their adult-teachers (Omolewa, 2007). Learning experiences in the traditional era, therefore, involved memorisation and recitation (McDowell, 1980). The versatile status of adults in traditional communities, also meant that they had to be respected by the young (Omolewa, 2007). This culture manifested in learning experiences because young-students were expected to have respect for their adult-teachers (M Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002; Omolewa, 2007).

Missionary era and education

The arrival of missionaries and the subsequent era of colonisation brought formal education to Nigeria. This period has also been described as one that considerably influenced different aspects of education in Nigeria. The local literature reported that missionaries and later colonial masters were keen to bring religion and education to Nigerians. The missionaries emphasised religious living, especially through Christianity. Christian religion also reflected realism in the belief that entities exist independent of our perception or knowledge about them. It also involved beliefs in authority and discipline, which upheld hierarchical social relations. Christian religion emphasised moral living and obedience to instruction. Religious education was therefore a means to transmit knowledge and valid truths. The teacher is expected to know more about the subject matter and transmit such knowledge to the students. Religious education also enabled hierarchical relations in learning experiences.

The local literature recorded that classroom practice in Nigerian schools during the colonial period included rote learning, which means reciting in order to memorise information (Shrigley, 1969). The use of rote learning was equated with recitation in some academic articles, but also described as the use of recitation to complete the teacher's sentences in others. This means that recitation was used to learn new concepts and recall previous learning, at the same time. Rote learning occurred together with continuous explanation of subject content by the teachers (Nduanya, 1978; Omokhodion, 1989). According to Okpala and Onacha (1988), the teachers' explanations or lecture usually lasted over half a lesson period. Some researchers also observed the use of short stories, proverbs, examples and analogies in Nigerian classrooms (Moffet, 1968; Sunal, Sunal, Rufai, Inuwa, & Haas, 2003). This use of oral literature was usually part of the teacher's lecture and they often included a moral lesson (Sunal et al., 2003).

Post-colonial era and education

Local literature records that classroom practice in Nigerian schools remained the same after the colonial period. Fajemidagba (1998) observed that students watched and listened to their teachers, when they were not reciting or answering questions. Shrigley (1969) also

observed that teachers asked questions during and after their lessons, and students responded with memorised information. This observation was described as the absence of discussion during lessons; particularly because the teachers' questions were used to keep to and not deviate from the information taught by the teacher (Omokhodion, 1989; Sunal et al., 2003). Teachers were able to confirm right and wrong answers and scold the students if they gave the wrong answer (Omokhodion, 1989). Moffet (1968) also observed that students were rarely divided into groups for activity or discussion during lessons, because of the short lesson periods or the teacher's desire to manage the classroom atmosphere.

Teachers' desire for control was also observed during lessons and in classroom interactions (Gesinde, 2000; Shrigley, 1969). According to Akpe (1994), this was because classroom management was particularly encouraged as a component of good teaching in Nigerian schools. Another reason was that cultural beliefs continued to decide who had authority and the balance of power within the classroom (Hofstede, 1986; Shrigley, 1969). These included cultural beliefs about the need to respect the adult-teacher and how to show good manners in learning environments (Shrigley, 1969). Teachers also used punishment to motivate classroom control and reinforce their authority in classrooms (Omokhodion, 1989; Umezinwa & Elendu, 2012). Teachers were also able to punish their students due to cultural beliefs that it is acceptable for teachers to act as substitute parents for their students (Aboluwodi, 2015; Nakpodia, 2010).

During the colonial era and afterwards, local literature reported that teachers were considered to be the experts and valid sources of information in their classrooms (Omokhodion, 1989). This role was supported by academics who argued that it was acceptable and suitable for teachers to be the expert in their classrooms (Adu & Olatundun, 2007; Akpe, 1994). Teachers were also expected to possess personal wisdom and beneficial experiences to be transferred to the students (Bojuwoye, 1983; Hofstede, 1986). Teachers adopted many roles; as the expert, counsellor, role model and leader, in their classrooms because cultural beliefs encouraged this standpoint (M Adeyemi, 1989; Bojuwoye, 1983). Academic articles and national policies for education also encouraged teachers to adopt these roles in learning experiences (Federal Ministry of Education, 1981).

Code-switching was another prevalent feature of classroom practice in Nigerian schools during and after the colonial era. Code-switching occurs when teachers use the English language and one or more Nigerian languages to teach a lesson (Odinko & Williams, 2006; L. O. Salami, 2008). It also involves the recitation of a proverb, adage or wise-saying in the local language then translating it into English. This method was used due to cultural beliefs that the original meaning of a proverb/saying is better retained when expressed in its natural language. L. O. Salami (2008) observed that code-switching to a Nigerian language generated excitement and better response among the students during lessons and suggested that it was a tool for student engagement.

3.3.1 PERSISTENT LINKS BETWEEN CULTURE AND PEDAGOGY IN NIGERIAN SCHOOLS

This account of the socio-cultural context of education in Nigeria argues that the influence of culture on pedagogy has prevailed over a long period of time. There are observable similarities between the form of classroom practice observed in the traditional era and that which emerged from the missionary/colonial era. For instance, teachers have maintained their roles as the expert, source of knowledge and authority within their classrooms. This is because cultural beliefs of the traditional communities about how knowledge is transmitted and the distribution of power between teachers and leaners resonated with the values of missionary education (Adeyinka, 1988). This congruence sustained the relative positioning of teachers and students in learning environments to date.

Moreover, even though the use of recitation and memorisation became more prominent during the colonial era, McDowell (1980) argued that both features resonated with the culture of traditional communities. Everyday conversation in traditional communities had included the completion of the adults' sentences and reciting proverbs from memory (Avoseh, 2013; Makinde, 1978). The fact that missionary education also encouraged the use of proverbs and moral stories, sustained the use of oral literature in learning experiences (Avoseh, 2013). It is, therefore, not unusual to observe that the use of stories, proverbs and analogies have been retained in Nigerian classrooms (Avoseh, 2013).

There is also the fact that the status of young-learners has remained unchanged from the traditional era. Students learned by listening, copying, memorising, and doing the teacher's instruction in the traditional era (Fajemidagba, 1998; McDowell, 1980; Odunaiya, 2015; Sunal et al., 2003). This role was also encouraged within missionary education and led to the memorisation of contents during classroom practice. Learning through activity reduced during the missionary era because theoretical concepts were being taught instead of the practical training received in the past. However, learning by activity is also being promoted in the current era of education in Nigeria.

A number of authors in the local literature have argued that the impact of community culture on educational practices has dwindled since the introduction of formal education in Nigeria (M Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002; Mazonde, 2001; Shizha, 2013). Such authors argue that the aims of education, curriculum design and teaching methods changed after the introduction of western education. The account presented here shows that this may not be the case for teaching methods and classroom practices in Nigerian schools. There is evidence that the teaching methods adopted from the missionary era were sustained because they resonated with the cultural beliefs of the traditional community (McDowell, 1980).

3.4 LOCAL TRANSLATIONS OF LCE REFORM IN NIGERIA

An analytic account of how the themes of progressive education became a focus in Nigerian education reform during the past decade was presented earlier on in this chapter. The aim of this section is to describe the process of recommending LCE in C2007, especially in relation to secondary education and the civic education syllabus. C2007 started with a plan to review the basic education scheme in Nigeria in 1999. The resulting project was called the Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme and involved a review of the years spent on basic education, the curriculum and the system of assessment (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013). More importantly, the revised scheme was linked to national objectives, national initiatives and global agendas for education, such as the MDGS, the objectives of the NEEDS project, aims of the 2004 version of the NPE, and the themes within EFA goals

(Ahmadi & Lukman, 2015; Y. O. Lawal, 2013; Obioma & Ajagun, 2006; Oluniyi & Olajumoke, 2013; Orji, 2011). This reform project was publicised with claims that it was based on a 'learner-centred, competence-based approach to education' (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013). It was not clearly stated how such an approach had been transferred into the revised curriculum but the claims continued to be influential in national discourse. After the UBE scheme was introduced, a general review of the basic and secondary education system was conducted, which it lasted from 2001 to 2007 (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013). The review process ended with the design of another curriculum for the basic and senior secondary levels of education, known as C2007 (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013).

The local literature suggests that C2007 was an outcome of a review process, as well as the creation of specially formed committees on curriculum development (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013). Awofala and Sopekan (2013) and Olateru-Olagbegi (2015) reported that education stakeholders, including parents, teachers and policy makers, representatives of Nigerian communities and federal government officials, were involved in the process of developing and endorsing C2007. C2007 was split into two programmes, the basic education curriculum (BEC) and the senior secondary education curriculum (SSEC). In 2008, the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) – the organisation that is responsible for curriculum development in Nigeria, published synoptic reports on the BEC and the SSEC, which included the programmes' philosophy and aims (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013). The NERDC stated in their report and conference speeches that the following philosophy underlies the BEC:

> *every learner who has gone through 9-years of basic education should have acquired appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, manipulative, communicative and life skills; as well as ethical, moral and civic values (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013, p. 102)*

The NERDC also stated that the following philosophy underlies the SSEC:

> *every senior secondary education graduate should have been prepared for higher education, and should have acquired relevant functional trade/entrepreneurship skills needed for poverty eradication, job creation and wealth generation, and in the process strengthen the ethical, moral and civic values acquired at the basic education level (Orji, 2011, p. 4)*

The links between the two philosophies were reflected in the requirement that skills achieved through the BEC should be advanced through the SSEC. Also, the two programmes were linked together whenever curriculum developers made claims about C2007. In other words, the aims, objectives and philosophies attributed to the BEC are considered to be synchronised with the principles of SSEC. Between 2009 and 2011, and in posts on Facebook and other news media, the philosophy attributed to BEC was upgraded by the officials of the NERDC. The philosophy statement has since read that:

> *Every learner who has gone through 9-years of basic education should have acquired appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, manipulative, communicative and life skills; as well as the ethical, moral, and civic values needed for laying a solid foundation for life-long learning as a basis for scientific and reflective thinking (Olateru-Olagbegi, 2015, p. 6)*

At this time, it appeared that the philosophy statements attributed to C2007 were revised to reflect claims that it was designed according to themes of progressive education. For instance, local literature around C2007 suggested that its objectives were quite similar to those attributed to the UBE scheme (Orji, 2011). Some local research studies also claimed that C2007 was designed for functional education and 'a learner-centred approach' to education (Alade, 2011, p. 7). Even though, such statements were personal opinions of the authors, they seemed to have been fuelled by the statements made by officials of the NERDC. So far, the conference speeches, online posts, conference presentations and academic articles published by key officials of the NERDC, have become the common basis for the principles attributed to C2007 (Ahmadi & Lukman, 2015; Awofala & Sopekan, 2013; Olateru-Olagbegi, 2015). The 6th edition of the NPE is the whole official national curriculum document that includes the principles, structure and contents of both the BEC and the SSEC. The secondary school curriculum has been split into separate volumes for individual subjects, published in print and online. Each volume contains an introduction, a foreword by the minister of education and a preface by the executive secretary of the NERDC, both appointed at the time of publication. It is within these introductory statements that objectives are derived and then described as indicative of the central themes of C2007 (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013).

In essence, the described process of deriving principles for the BEC in the local literature, meant that all claims about the BEC could be transmitted to the SSEC. In this way, claims that the BEC was based on a learner-centred approach to education, were subsequently transferred to the SSEC. As an example, claims that the SSEC reflects the themes of progressive education emerged not prior to, but after its introduction to secondary school in 2011. The recent online posts by officials of the NERDC have since included claims that the SSEC was designed 'using a thematic approach' (Omosewo & Akanmu, 2013, p. 75). Statements from NERDC officials hardly mention how the 'thematic', 'learner-centred' and competence-based' approaches are manifested in the implementation of C2007 and the SSEC, therefore local literature around C2007 has inadvertently become the means to fill this gap. Omosewo and Akanmu (2013) and Awofala and Sopekan (2013) suggested that the claims of learner-centredness in C2007 were based on observed changes to the content of the syllabus printed for each curriculum subject. Such changes included the addition of sections on performance objectives for students, activities for the students alongside activities for teachers and recommended learning aids for each topic (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013; Igbokwe, 2015; Omosewo & Akanmu, 2013). The addition of performance objectives and students activities, was interpreted in some academic articles, as the means to ensure that lessons will have 'more participatory teaching' and reflect 'student-centred methods, techniques and strategies' (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013, p. 103; Omosewo & Akanmu, 2013, p. 75).

Igbokwe (2015) also suggested that the addition of student activities alongside teacher activities would encourage collaboration between students, and students and their teachers, as well as improved classroom interactions. In this way, local interpretations of how LCE manifests in C2007 comprises changes to the content of the syllabus and the expectations that some authors in the local literature have attached to these changes. The limitation of this process was evident in the fact that 'personal' expectations, were defined as indicators of LCE reform and attributed to the implementation of C2007 and the SSEC. For instance, two researchers inferred that changes in the content of the syllabus meant that 'constructivist pedagogies such as active learning, use of manipulatives, cooperative learning, problem-solving methods, project methods' are now emphasised in C2007

(Awofala & Sopekan, 2013, p. 104). Such claims can therefore be considered as amplified interpretations of the addition of student activities to the syllabus.

As mentioned earlier, SSEC was implemented in secondary schools in 2011, in a procedure described as a 'gradual phasing-out' process (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013). This meant that the SSEC syllabus was taught to students admitted to the first year of senior secondary education, during 2011 and afterwards (Orji, 2011). The students that were already enrolled in the second and third year of senior secondary school during that period were taught using the predated syllabus. The primary sign of implementing C2007 within secondary school was the anticipated switch to the new syllabus in different classrooms. There were also claims that the public, especially school communities, had been 'properly informed' about the implementation of SSEC in secondary schools (NERDC news online). These claims have been challenged in recent years by local research studies that found teachers who were unaware of the changes reflected the implementation of C2007 (Oluniyi & Aluko, 2012).

Another disputed aspect of the implementation of SSEC and C2007 is the claim that teachers were adequately involved in the process. Even though publications and press releases of NERDC officials claimed that teachers were well represented during the review process, some research articles have challenged these accounts (Ahmadi & Lukman, 2015; Awofala & Sopekan, 2013; Igbokwe, 2015). This issue could have been clarified by detailed accounts on the number of teachers involved, how they were chosen, and from which schools and communities. However, these details are not available in accounts that described the review process. Instead, these articles vaguely state that 'consultation' with teachers was held during the review period, that the workshops organised to plan, write and review the curriculum were attended by 'seasoned teachers' and that a committee that assessed the curriculum before endorsement was made up of 'representatives' from different societies including the Nigerian union of teachers (NUT) (Awofala & Sopekan, 2013, pp. 101-102). There have also been claims in research publications and news media that teachers were adequately trained for the implementation of SSEC. These views have again been challenged by research accounts on the implementation process in different schools (Igbokwe, 2015).

3.5 CIVIC EDUCATION IN SSEC AND ITS LINKS TO LCE REFORM

The addition of civic education to the SSEC is recorded as one of the important features of recent curriculum reform in Nigeria. Its introduction addressed some of the national objectives for education and achieved a much-advocated need for the teaching of civic education in secondary schools (Aroge, 2012; Falade, 2008; Falade & Adeyemi, 2015; Jekayinfa et al., 2011; Nnadi, 2010; Nwaubani & Azuh, 2014; Oluniyi, 2011). The process of adding civic education to the SSEC was also said to be informed by global goals for development including the MDGs (Orji, 2011). Given that civic education had been added as a new subject, it was implied that teaching through its 'newly designed' syllabus would automatically imply participation in implementing SSEC and C2007.

There are conflicting reports in the local literature on whether or not training programmes were organised for the potential teachers of civic education in different secondary schools. The local literature records that academic degrees or educational qualifications for civic education were not yet available at the time of implementing SSEC. It was therefore anticipated that teachers of social studies (a similar subject taught in junior secondary classes) would be appointed as teachers of civic education. The teachers of history were also considered to be capable of teaching civic education in secondary schools. Therefore, history and social studies teachers switched roles or took on further responsibilities, as teachers of civic education as well as their own primary subjects. The Edo state government (one of the 36 states in Nigeria) took the initiative in 2011, to conduct a training seminar for potential teachers of civic education selected from some of its schools (Jekayinfa et al., 2011). However, there are no available reports so far that equivalent programmes were held in the remaining 35 states. The validity of available teacher training programmes have also been disputed, with claims that the content was not revised and adapted to the new civic education syllabus and its requirements for classroom practice (Jekayinfa et al., 2011).

These pedagogical requirements of the civic education syllabus have been a major theme in the local literature and the arguments are split between two groups. The first group of authors include those who maintained that 'learner-centred and student-centred' ideas

are already reflected in the civic education syllabus. For instance, using a process quite similar to the translations of the SSEC, some researchers have argued that the changes to the civic education syllabus reflect and encourage the use of LCE strategies in civic education classrooms (Okobia, 2012). This set of researchers also suggested the aims and contents of the civic education syllabus included themes that encouraged active and participatory learning in classrooms. For instance, Olibie and Akudolu (2013) stated that the coverage of national issues in the syllabus would potentially generate open discussions and engaging classroom sessions. Such open discussions and engaging classroom sessions were interpreted to be indicative of and exclusive to SCI (Nwaubani & Azuh, 2014).

The second group of authors include those who wrote about SSEC after its implementation but contradicted the interpretations of the first group of authors that LCE ideas were already reflected in the civic education syllabus. This set of researchers commended the addition of civic education to the SSEC, then simultaneously recommended the use of LCE strategies as the best way to teach its syllabus. Such statements reflected beliefs that their recommendations for pedagogical practices had not yet been considered in the civic education syllabus (Chimezie, 2011; Okam & Ibrahim, 2011; Olateru-Olagbegi, 2015; Oluniyi & Aluko, 2012). Some researchers in this second group also claimed that they had 'innovatively' recommended the use of LCE strategies in their studies prior to the implementation of the SSEC, based on the argument that conventional methods were still in use in Nigerian classrooms and needed to be replaced (Falade & Adeyemi, 2015; Oluniyi, 2011; Oluniyi & Aluko, 2012). In sum, beliefs about whether or not the civic education syllabus encourages the use of LCE strategies have been left to the personal interpretations of authors in the local literature. The most likely indicator, as suggested by NERDC officials and reviews of SSEC is that the civic education syllabus now includes student activities, which are likely to encourage participation in classroom practice.

3.6 CIVIC EDUCATION: AIMS, CONTENT AND EXPECTATIONS FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICE

The civic education syllabus document states that the subject was designed to help students to "acquire knowledge, attitude, values and basic skills that will help them to become responsible and disciplined members of their societies" (SSEC Civic Education Pg. V). This syllabus document also recorded the following objectives for civic education:

1. To promote the understanding of inter-relationships between man/woman, the government and the society
2. To highlight the structure of government, its functions and the responsibility of the government to the people and vice versa
3. To enhance the teaching and learning of emerging issues
4. To inculcate in students their duties and obligation to the society.

Students were expected to achieve these aims and objectives by gathering appropriate information "through participation" so that they can apply "what they have learned to their daily experiences". Therefore, expectations for classroom practice included the suggestion that learners/students should be taught the contents of the civic education curriculum and fulfil the performance objectives for each topic, by applying the stipulated teacher and student activities with the use of teaching and learning materials, and assessed based on the evaluation guide provided in the curriculum.

The contents of the civic education curriculum for senior secondary year I classes included eight themes, namely Our (Nigerian) values, Emerging issues, Citizenship, representative democracy, pillars of democracy, law and order, human rights, and Cultism. The topics under these themes were required to be taught through teacher's explanations, discussions, participation in community service, and visits to relevant sites, skill training, and the invitation of a guest speaker. The contents of the civic education curriculum for senior secondary year II classes included nine themes, namely citizenship, democracy and national development, dangers of political apathy, achieving popular participation in politics, limitations of human rights, drug and drug abuse, responsible parenthood, traffic regulations, and relationships. The topics under these themes were required to be taught through teacher's explanations, class demonstrations, class discussions, play or drama

acts on topics, illustration of concepts, display of drug samples, exhibition of photographs related to subject content, invitation of resource persons, and question-and-answer sessions. The contents of the civic education curriculum for senior secondary year III students included six themes, namely the characteristics of human rights, dangers of political apathy, public service in a democracy, civil society and popular participation, constitutional democracy and the rule of law, and human trafficking. The topics under these themes were required to be taught through students' contributions, class discussions, exhibition of pictures related to a topic, teacher's explanations, question-and-answer sessions, class visit to resource persons and relevant sites, and plays or drama.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has covered the historic account of education reform in Nigeria in order to describe events that preceded and initiated LCE reform in the education system. This account does not cover all of the events related to education reform at the different levels of education. Instead, it highlights the significant events that contributed to education reform at the secondary level of education and discusses the treatise of education reform in the local literature. The account essentially provides evidence that classroom practice in Nigerian secondary schools has been problematized in response to national events and global agendas for education rather than through an in-depth analysis of context realities and context-relevant solutions. An analytic discussion on the socio-cultural context of education in Nigeria has also been provided to make a case for the traces of culture observed in the actions and reactions of teachers and students involved in this research. The last two sections of this chapter addressed the local translations of LCE reform in the senior secondary education curriculum and the civic education curriculum. This account indicated that LCE was locally translated as the addition of classroom/student activities to the SSEC and in the civic education curriculum. Such analysis argues that the translations of SCI/LCE are overly simplistic, since they do not reflect the essential principles underlying adequate definitions of LCE. The next chapter describes the research design of this study, with a comprehensive account of the methods and procedures used for data collection and analysis.

Chapter IV: Research design and methodology

INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains an account of the research design and methods that were used to address the study aim and research questions. A qualitative research design was to "secure in-depth understanding of phenomena that are situated in the empirical world" (Marsha 2001). The chapter begins with a recall of the overall aim and specific research questions addressed in this research. It then goes on to discuss the two philosophical paradigms, which underlie the research design that is post-positivism and Interpretivism. The discussion covers the rationale for using both paradigms together in this research, and how they have been applied to different aspects of this study. The choices and decisions made in selecting schools, participants, and classrooms for this research are also discussed. Details of the data collection process are also presented here; including the development of the research instruments, the steps taken during data collection, and the methods used to ensure trustworthiness in the research process and during report writing. The chapter ends with a reflexive account of the researcher's influence on the process of data collection and analysis; and how this research journey has changed the researcher.

4.0 RESEARCH FOCUS AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The overall aim of this study is to explore stakeholders' perspectives, and the context realities of SCI implementation within civic education lessons in private and public secondary schools in Nigeria.

The research questions include the following:

1. What contextual factors influence SCI implementation within three secondary schools in Nigeria?

2. What are the features of classroom practice within the observed civic education lessons in the selected schools?

3. What are the perspectives of selected civic education teachers on classroom practices during their civic education lessons and SCI implementation?

4. What are the perspectives of selected senior secondary year II students on classroom practices during their civic education lessons and SCI implementation?

4.1 PHILOSOPHICAL APPROACH TO RESEARCH DESIGN

In order to adequately address its aims and research questions, this study is set within two philosophical paradigms of educational research – post-positivism and Interpretivism. Post-positivism is described as an afterthought to positivism, popularly known as the scientific approach to social inquiry. Positivism embraces the belief that reality is what is experienced and observed. It also holds that accurate and value-free knowledge about reality can be grasped through scientific and social inquiry (Crotty, 1998; Mertens, 1998). Post-positivism however holds that reality exists but can only be known imperfectly, due to human limitations (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Post-positivism accepts the belief that reality exists whether we can grasp it or not, but rejects the belief that there can be value-free knowledge or reality can be perfectly apprehended (Crotty, 1998; Miller, 2000). Interpretivism, on the other hand holds the belief that reality is socially constructed and knowledge is negotiated by the people involved in the inquiry process (Garrick, 1999; Mertens, 1998). Interpretivism accepts the view that there are multiple realities, but what is agreed on is a valid representation of 'socially constructed reality' (Snape & Spencer, 2003). Interpretivism suggests that researchers are mainly involved in constructing meaning and knowledge, therefore the knowledge of social reality cannot be value-free (Snape & Spencer, 2003). In this way, both post-positivism and Interpretivism consider the values, assumptions, dispositions and experiences of the researcher as factors that can and naturally influence the process of social inquiry (Mertens, 1998; Ryan, 2006).

The use of post-positivism and Interpretivism as a starting point for this research was determined by the aim to explore rather than evaluate or explain social reality in Nigerian secondary school classrooms. Both paradigms support the conduct of exploratory and

contextual inquiry, through investigations and descriptions of what exists in a given context (Crossan, 2003; Ritchie, 2003). Both paradigms were also chosen instead of a critical theorist approach because the research did not aim at empowerment or interpretation of social action (Creswell, 2007). Even though post-positivism and Interpretivism embrace different beliefs about what is real, they are considered to be compatible because they both accept beliefs that reality can be socially constructed (Miller, 2000). Post-positivism and Interpretivism also advocate that acquired knowledge about constructed realities and objective reality should be open to correction (Miller, 2000). The qualitative research design employed in this study, reflects interrelated acceptance and use of distinctive beliefs and principles of post-positivist and interpretive research.

An outline of this approach is presented in the table below:

Aspects of research	**Adopted views**	**Contributing paradigm(s)**
The nature of knowledge	What is known are perceptions of reality within the research context; such 'constructs' cannot be perfect due to human limitations (Benton & Craib, 2001; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Mertens, 1998)	Post-positivism
Researcher and the 'subject of the study'(Mertens, 1998)	The researcher impacts the process of inquiry with preconceived notions, background knowledge and values that they hold. Therefore, the researcher must be critical of their role and assertions made about research (Mertens, 1998; Miller, 2000)	Post-positivism and Interpretivism
Research design	The purpose of inquiry is to acquire evidence about the existence of a phenomenon (Crossan, 2003). Researchers enter the field of inquiry with issues in mind; this process is exploratory rather than an attempt to solve the predetermined issues (Ryan, 2006).	Post-positivism and Interpretivism

	Interpretive research is focused on context and experiences of participants; the aim is to obtain participants' views and perceptions about social reality (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 2002).	
Methods used in research	various methods are associated with qualitative research; e.g. Interviews, observations, case studies (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Jackson, Drummond, & Camara, 2007). However, the choice of methods should be based on research questions or issues that the researcher seeks to explore (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Ryan, 2006)	Interpretivism and post-positivism
Data analysis and reporting	Research does not lead to an 'overall' truth; and researcher's voice in analysis and interpretation should be reflexive (Ryan, 2006). Being reflexive, requires that a researcher is aware of and is able to disclose values, dispositions, bias, and decisions in research[9] (Bryman, 2008; Mertens, 1998). The research findings should also be reported in a way that admits that they are open to correction (Ryan, 2006)	Post-positivism and Interpretivism
Validation standards for research	Interpretive research is validated through measures of trustworthiness in inquiry - credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Jackson et al., 2007)	Interpretivism

Table 4.1: Philosophical principles of this study

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN (OVERVIEW)

Qualitative methods of sampling, data collection and data analysis were employed in this study. This qualitative research design was chosen to conduct research in natural settings and acquire the experiences of the participants involved (Jackson et al., 2007). It was also employed to fulfil the aims of conducting interpretive inquiry (Creswell, 2007). Purposive sampling, a technique used in qualitative inquiry was used in this research to select the schools for research, the classrooms observed during research, the research participants, and the class year of the student-participants. Members of this sample were purposively

[9] The reflexive account of this research will be included in the last section of this chapter.

selected because they fulfilled the study's aim to explore classroom practice within secondary schools in Nigeria (Ritchie, Lewis, et al., 2003).

The qualitative data collection methods used in this study included observations, shadowing, individual interviews and focus groups (Bryman, 2008). **Observation** is a research method that allows researchers to learn about the features of, and events that occur in a natural setting, by observing and participating in such events (Kawulich, 2005). Observations were used in this research to study the usual atmosphere of the schools, classroom resources and their everyday activities. Having an obvious presence during observations also enabled the researcher to clarify observed features and events immediately and ask members of the school community for further explanations (Bryman, 2008; Delamont, 2004; Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, & Namey, 2005). **Shadowing** in qualitative research involves a process where the researcher closely follows a member of an organisation or community for a period of time (Ritchie, Spencer, & O'Connor, 2003). The shadowing technique was used in this research in order to acquire data on the general experiences of senior secondary year II students across the three schools.

Interviews are a popular research method in social research. They have been described as a social encounter in which the participants work together to produce retrospective and sometimes prospective accounts of actions, experiences, feelings and thoughts (Rapley, 2004). They were used in this research to acquire the views of participants about their experiences, school and classroom conditions, and a range of issues related to this study (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). **Focus groups** are group interviews that draw on the interaction between the group participants to acquire data (Finch & Lewis, 2003). Focus groups were used in this research to acquire the collective and negotiated views of students on classroom practice and SCI implementation. These data collection methods were used to acquire a wide range of views at the same time (Mertens, 1998). The data collected from research included field notes of school and lesson observations, transcripts of interviews and focus groups, and a copy of the civic education syllabus for Nigerian secondary schools.

The qualitative approach to data analysis used in this research is known as thematic content analysis. Thematic content analysis involves analysing transcripts, and identifying themes within the data (Burnard, Gill, Stewart, Treasure, & Chadwick, 2008). The process involves open coding of data, collection of codes into categories, merging similar and overlapping categories, then further refining and reducing those categories (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Burnard et al., 2008). The labels for the final set of categories are reported as the themes acquired from data analysis. See appendix **IV** for the full list of themes generated from data analysis. The analytic process was data-driven in the sense that it generated both descriptive and explanatory ideas from data (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004).

The strategies employed to validate research included piloting of the research instruments, member checks of interview transcripts, thick description of the research context and reflexive accounts of the research process (Mertens, 1998). More detail about the process of the research validation will be discussed later on in section 4.9. As mentioned earlier, this research was conducted in three schools. The three schools were selected in order to achieve comparison of experiences and views across relatively different contexts. An anonymous pen portrait of the three secondary schools is provided at the beginning of chapter 5. The pen portrait provides a description of the physical learning environment and the general educational approach of the three schools, which sets the scene for the research findings presented in chapter 5 and 6.

4.3 SAMPLING & RATIONALE

This research took place around a city within the south-west region of Nigeria, due to the author's familiarity with the context. Data collection was conducted within secondary schools as required by the study's aim to explore classroom practice in secondary education (Ritchie, Lewis, et al., 2003). The selection of schools across the same city helped to minimise the risks of travelling (Lewis, 2003). Particularly because of the recent terrorist attacks and kidnapping incidents reported from different cities across the country. Three schools were selected based on school type – whether they were private or public

secondary schools. They were identified through the researcher's familiarity with different schools in the local area. The schools were differentiated based on the research objective to compare classroom practice across well-resourced private and low-resourced public secondary schools. The first school – Lavender is a private secondary school while the second and third schools – Cobalt and Jade are public secondary schools. At first look, the physical learning environment in Lavender was better than the other two schools, and poorest in Jade. Classroom-based research was conducted in the second class year of secondary education, also known as the senior secondary level II (SSII) classes in Nigerian schools (Omosewo & Akanmu, 2013). This is because the third-class year had completed their final examinations at the time of research, and students in this class year had stopped attending classes. The second-class year students were good substitutes because they had almost completed two years of study since the implementation of the C2007.

Civic education was chosen over other subjects, because it was a compulsory subject for all secondary students despite their disciplines (Omosewo & Akanmu, 2013). As mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, local literature stated that the civic education syllabus provided more opportunities for SCI than other compulsory subjects such as Mathematics and English language (Jekayinfa et al., 2011; Okobia, 2012). Civic education lessons were observed within the classrooms of science and social science students, of the SSII classes. These two classrooms were available for research within a short timeframe in the first school and they were selected in the other two schools in order to be consistent. They are labelled as science and social science students in this research because secondary school students are divided into three disciplines in Nigerian schools. The three categories are the science students, the social science students and the arts students. This classification has been changed to four disciplines since the implementation of C2007 but most secondary schools have ignored this change (Omosewo & Akanmu, 2013). Therefore, secondary school students were still divided into three disciplines and classrooms during the timeframe of this research.

Research participants were purposively sampled across the three schools. They include two **school administrators** – a principal and a vice principal. Most schools are expected to have one principal and at least one vice principal. All the three schools had one school

principal. There was only one vice principal in Lavender but the other two schools – Cobalt and Jade had more than one vice principal. In both schools, one vice principal was assigned for academic affairs and another for administrative affairs, therefore the vice principals designated for academic affairs were selected for this research. These school administrators were selected based on the expectation that they would be familiar with the school values, learning culture and any changes to the school system (Adebunmi, 2014; Peterson & Deal, 1998). Research participants also included the **Civic education teachers** of the SSII classes within the three schools. The teachers were selected because they were primary participants in the learning process and were expected to have first-hand experience of changes to the civic education syllabus. The civic education teacher in Lavender was selected out of the two civic education teachers in the school because she was the only one assigned to teach the SSII classes. In Cobalt and Jade however, the selected teachers were the only civic education teachers in their schools.

The background information of the selected school administrators and civic education teachers is included in the table below:

RESEARCH PARTICIPANT	**BACKGROUND DETAILS**
PRINCIPAL, LAVENDER	MALE. SERVED 7 YEARS AT POST AT DATE OF RESEARCH. WORKED PREVIOUSLY IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS AS A TEACHER, VICE PRINCIPAL AND PRINCIPAL.
VICE PRINCIPAL, LAVENDER	FEMALE. SERVED AS THE ONLY VICE PRINCIPAL IN LS, AT DATE OF RESEARCH. OTHER BACKGROUND INFORMATION WAS NOT PROVIDED.
PRINCIPAL, COBALT	FEMALE. SERVED 4 YEARS AT POST AT DATE OF RESEARCH. WORKED PREVIOUSLY IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AS A TEACHER, HEAD OF DEPARTMENT AND VICE PRINCIPAL.
VICE PRINCIPAL, COBALT	MALE. SERVED AS ONE OF THE VICE PRINCIPALS IN CS, AT DATE OF RESEARCH. WORKED PREVIOUSLY IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AS A TEACHER AND HEAD OF DEPARTMENT.
PRINCIPAL, JADE	FEMALE. WORKED AS SCHOOL PRINCIPAL FOR LESS THAN 4 MONTHS, AT DATE OF RESEARCH. WORKED PREVIOUSLY IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AS A TEACHER, VICE PRINCIPAL AND PRINCIPAL.
VICE PRINCIPAL, JADE	MALE. SERVED AS ONE OF THE SIX VICE PRINCIPALS IN JS AND FOR 2 YEARS, AT DATE OF RESEARCH. WORKED PREVIOUSLY IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AS A TEACHER AND A VICE PRINCIPAL.
CIVIC EDUCATION TEACHER, LAVENDER	FEMALE. INITIALLY EMPLOYED AS A HISTORY TEACHER BUT ASSIGNED TO TEACH CIVIC EDUCATION DURING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF C2007. WORKED AS A TEACHER IN LAVENDER FOR 10 YEARS AT DATE OF RESEARCH. ALSO APPOINTED TO BE A SUBJECT HEAD FOR TEACHERS OF CIVIC EDUCATION, HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE. **ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS**: FIRST DEGREE IN ADULT EDUCATION AND HISTORY, AND A MASTER'S DEGREE IN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

CIVIC EDUCATION TEACHER, COBALT	FEMALE. INITIALLY EMPLOYED AS A GOVERNMENT[10] TEACHER BUT ASSIGNED TO TEACH CIVIC EDUCATION DURING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF C2007. WORKED AS A TEACHER IN COBALT FOR 16 YEARS AT DATE OF RESEARCH. **ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS**: FIRST DEGREE IN POLITICAL SCIENCE AND ADULT EDUCATION
CIVIC EDUCATION TEACHER, JADE	MALE. INITIALLY EMPLOYED AS AN ECONOMICS TEACHER BUT ASSIGNED TO TEACH CIVIC EDUCATION DURING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF C2007. **ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS**: HIGHER NATIONAL DIPLOMA CERTIFICATE IN ESTATE MANAGEMENT; POSTGRADUATE DIPLOMA IN POLITICAL SCIENCE AND ENROLLED ON A MASTER'S DEGREE AT A FEDERAL UNIVERSITY, AT JULY 2014.

Table 4.2: background details of the school administrators and civic education teachers

Research participants also included **students** from SSII classes across the three schools. A student was selected for shadowing in each of the three schools. The students were selected from the SSII class year without regard for discipline since they were recruited to provide general and not discipline-specific experience of being a SSII student. The student selected for shadowing in Lavender was chosen from a list of students recommended by staff members. She agreed to participate in research before the other students included in the list. The lead female prefects were selected for shadowing in Cobalt and Jade because they were recommended by staff members and they also agreed to participate in the study. A different group of students were selected from the observed civic education lessons in the classrooms of science and social science students in each school. They were selected to participate in focus groups and included a group of six students from each of the classrooms. This group of students included an equal number of male and female students, and an equal number of low, average and high achievers. This selection criteria was expected to generate a heterogeneous group and contribute positively to group dynamics (Morgan, 1997). The classroom teachers of the SSII science and social science students in each of the schools were involved in the selection process because they were in charge of the records of academic performance and student demographics.

[10] Government is a subject

As mentioned earlier in chapters 1 and 2, students were selected for research in order to address an observed lack of student views in research around classroom practice in Nigeria (Salman et al., 2012). The students were recruited for research to check teacher's claims about classroom practice. The researcher assumed that a combination of teacher and students' views would generate more balanced accounts about classroom practice (Mac An Ghaill, 1992). Data collection involved the selection of six students from each of the observed civic education lessons in each school. Two lesson observations were conducted in each school; therefore, twelve students were selected for focus groups in each of the schools. Again, each student group included six students – three male and three female students, as well as two students with low, average and high academic performance. A final **category of participants** were recruited by opportunistic sampling during the general observation conducted in the three schools (Ritchie, Lewis, et al., 2003). School observations were conducted overtly and such participants helped to clarify or answer the researcher's questions about the school background and learning environment. This group of participants are labelled as local persons in this study. In Lavender, the selected local persons were two security guards who were on duty during the school observations. In Cobalt, the selected local person was a library assistant. She was recommended by the vice principal and she also agreed to participate in the study. In Jade, the selected local person was one of the five vice principals of the school. He was in charge of overseeing the general affairs of the school and agreed to participate in the study.

A snapshot of all the selected research participants across the three schools is included in the table below, along with the code names given to each of the participants in chapters 5 and 6:

SCHOOL PSEUDONYMS	PARTICIPANTS & CODE NAMES
LAVENDER	PRINCIPAL (LSP), VICE PRINCIPAL (LSVP), CIVIC EDUCATION TEACHER (LSCVT), SHADOWED STUDENT (LSSHE), THE GROUP OF SCIENCE STUDENTS (SCIENCE STUDENTS, LAVENDER), THE GROUP OF SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDENTS (SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDENTS, LAVENDER) and TWO LOCAL PERSONS (LSLP1 & LSLP2)

COBALT	PRINCIPAL (CSP), VICE PRINCIPAL (CSVP), CIVIC EDUCATION TEACHER (CSCVT), SHADOWED STUDENT (CSSHE), THE GROUP OF SCIENCE STUDENTS (SCIENCE STUDENTS, COBALT), THE GROUP OF SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDENTS (SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDENTS, COBALT) and ONE LOCAL PERSON (CSLP)
JADE	PRINCIPAL (JSP), VICE PRINCIPAL (JSVP), CIVIC EDUCATION TEACHER (JSCVT), SHADOWED STUDENT (JSSHE), THE GROUP OF SCIENCE STUDENTS (SCIENCE STUDENTS, JADE), THE GROUP OF SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDENTS (SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDENTS, JADE) and ONE LOCAL PERSON (JSLP)

Table 4.3: Snapshot of all the research participants

4.4 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The first step of data collection in the three schools involved general school observations. These school observations involved a walk around the school premises and the whole school environment. The observations were recorded on a voice recorder while the researcher described and explained the physical features of the school and events occurring at that time. The researcher also recorded the conversations that she had with selected local persons during school observations. The physical size of the school determined the duration of school observations therefore the researcher spent more time during school observations in Lavender, which had the largest school area. The school observations lasted for 30 to 40 minutes in Cobalt and Jade, but lasted for 90 minutes in Lavender. Another type of school observation tagged sit-down observations was conducted in the three schools. The researcher sat in different parts of the school area for a period of time, in order to record routine incidents during the school day. The researcher's accounts during sit-down observations were also recorded on a voice recorder.

Interviews and lesson observations took place mostly after general school observations in the three schools. A timetable of the school visits and the data collected during the school visits are included in Appendix VI**.** As mentioned earlier, two lesson observations were

conducted in each school during civic education[11] lessons in the classrooms of SSII science and social science students. The lesson observations took place at different periods or based on classroom schedules. In other words, lesson observations took place at the different periods assigned for teaching civic education in different classrooms. At times when the civic education teachers had a tight schedule or due to an unexpected occurrence, they negotiated with their colleagues to use a period previously assigned for another subject. This happened in Lavender and Cobalt. For instance, the schedule for lesson observation in the classroom of SSII social science students in Lavender coincided with a mid-term break, this would have prevented or delayed data collection. Therefore, the civic teacher obtained permission to hold the lesson the day before during the period assigned for home economics. The SSII social science students in the particular classroom were also informed about the situation and agreed to participate in the impromptu lesson observation.

Lesson observations were recorded in a field journal and on a voice recorder. The written records included activities that occurred every minute from the start of the lesson to the end. The researcher was either seated or standing at the back of the classrooms to observe the civic education lessons and take notes at the same time. This process reduced the presence of the researcher to a somewhat detached observer; since there was no communication between the researcher and the participants during the lessons. The voice recordings captured the teachers' lecture and audible student reactions during the lesson. These recordings were used later on to supplement the notes taken by the researcher during the lesson observations. The duration of the observed lessons depended on the time assigned for the class period. The lessons that took place during their formally assigned periods lasted between thirty to forty minutes. However, the rescheduled lessons were held for short periods of time, and lasted between fifteen to twenty-five minutes. All voice recordings, excluding those for the lesson observations, were later transcribed into field notes for subsequent analysis (Mertens, 1998). A sample of transcribed voice recordings from the school observations in Lavender is included in

[11] The reason for choosing civic education has been discussed in Chapter 3 of this dissertation.

Appendix III. During data collection, shadowed students were observed in their natural classroom settings and interviewed afterwards. The researcher's commentary during the shadowing process and the interviews with the shadowed students were also recorded and transcribed for data analysis.

Individual interviews were first conducted with the school administrators in each of the three schools. The interviews were semi-structured, which means that a set of pre-determined open ended questions were used to guide the conversations (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). Further details about the open-ended questions are included in the next section, which presents an account of item development for this study. The interviews were conducted with the use of a topic guide that included the key topics, issues and questions to cover during the conversations (Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2003). See Appendix II for the topic guides used for interviews with the school administrators. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with selected civic education teachers across the three schools. The semi-structured design of interviews with the civic education teachers and the school administrators ensured that important and similar themes were covered in all conversations (Mertens, 1998). The teacher interviews were split into two sets; the first set included short interviews held after the lesson observations conducted in each school. This set of interviews are referred to as debrief sessions in this thesis. The teacher debrief sessions were conducted with a set of pre-determined questions that were intended to acquire the teacher's views about an observed lesson. The teacher debrief sessions were also used to clarify the researcher's observations during each lesson.

The second set of teacher interviews were more comprehensive with extended conversations on the themes of research. The extended interviews were held twice with the same civic education teacher in Lavender, and once with the civic education teachers at Cobalt and Jade. The extended interview was held twice with the civic education teacher in Lavender because the interview questions were reviewed after the first two weeks of research. The changes to those interview questions and rationale for the change will also be discussed in the next section. This set of teacher interviews lasted for 30 – 40 minutes in each school. Individual interviews were also conducted with selected local persons across the three schools. The conversations with the selected local persons in

each school took place during or immediately after school observations since they were intended to clarify the researcher's observations. These interviews were less structured than the interviews held with the school administrators and the civic education teachers. The range of questions were not pre-determined in order to adapt to unique and unpredictable observations. All the interviews followed a conversation pattern, which was designed to foster good rapport with the interviewees. The pattern involved repeating ethical issues and reconfirming consent at the beginning of the interview, obtaining permission to record, and concluding interviews with unwinding questions and a final thank you (Legard et al., 2003; Rapley, 2004). All the interviews were recorded on a voice recorder and transcribed afterwards. Transcripts of the interviews with school administrators and the civic education teachers are included in Appendix III.

Focus groups were conducted with the selected SSII science and social science students across the three schools. The focus groups were split into two sets; the first set included short interviews held after the lesson observations conducted in each school. The first set were brief discussions with the selected group of six students from the SSII science and social science classrooms. Those brief discussions took place immediately after lesson observations in their classrooms. The conversations were similar to those held during the teacher debrief sessions and the students were presented with questions on the recently completed civic education lessons. The second set of focus groups were more comprehensive with extended conversations on the themes of research. The focus groups were semi-structured in the sense that the researcher asked pre-determined but open questions in order to acquire flexible responses to important themes in all conversations with the selected students (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). See appendix II for the topic guide used during the focus groups.

The extended focus groups were held once with each group of students. The conversations were held in places where the teachers and staff members could not intrude or overhear conversations. This step was taken to motivate free conversations among the students and the researcher and reassure the students of confidentiality. The selection of students from the same class year and discipline for each student group was done in order to encourage a sense of homogeneity among the group members (Morgan, 1997).

However, the fact that each group included students with different levels of academic competence also ensured heterogeneity and varied perspectives within the groups (Kitzinger, 1995). The students were instructed to refrain from talking over one another or nodding to express agreement, at the beginning of each focus group. The researcher's involvement in the focus groups depended on the level of interaction within each group (Finch & Lewis, 2003). Some of the student groups were unreserved during conversations while others needed constant encouragement to interact. Reduced interaction occurred in some of the student groups because some of the students were not confident about speaking in English. Such students were encouraged to speak the local language if they wanted to, but they did not. The two sets of focus groups were recorded on an audio recorder. A problematic situation occurred when the researcher forgot to turn on the audio recorder during one of the focus groups, and realised mid-way into the conversation. The situation was quickly rectified by notifying the group, turning on the recorder and reassuring the group that it is okay to continue the conversation instead of starting over. This decision helped to prevent anxiety and a negative shift in the flow of conversation (Krueger, 1994). The affected group also agreed to meet for a second time to re-record the earlier conversation.

4.5 ITEM DEVELOPMENT

As mentioned earlier, the semi-structured interviews and focus groups were conducted with the use of topic guides. See appendix II for drafts copies of the topic guides. The topic guides were designed to outline the important themes to this research (S. Arthur & Nazroo, 2003). Such themes include the recommendation of SCI within recent curriculum reform in Nigeria, underlying factors to SCI implementation in Nigerian schools, and the conditions of learning in Nigerian secondary schools. The topic guides also reflected specific aims for the different sets of interviews. For instance, the interviews with school administrators were intended to generate data on the conditions of learning and general educational approach in their schools. Therefore, the topic guide for interviews with the school administrators included questions about the school management, school rules and regulations, opportunities for teacher training, process of teacher supervision or

monitoring and the provision of learning aids for different subjects and classes. Individual interviews with the school administrators were also intended to discover stakeholders' awareness about the recommendation of SCI in recent curriculum reform and their disposition towards it. Therefore, the topic guides also included questions about the recent curriculum reform, and overall approach to classroom practice in their different schools.

The topic guides for the interviews with the civic education teachers were intended to generate data on the nature of classroom practice in their lessons, the teachers' views about classroom practice, and the conditions of learning in their classrooms. Therefore, the topic guide for teacher interviews included questions about the teacher's approach to classroom practice, the perceived responsibilities of the teacher during classroom practice, opportunities for student involvement in their lessons, the school's provision for learning during civic education lessons, and the process of teacher supervision in their schools. Interviews with the selected teachers were also intended to discover stakeholders' awareness about the recommendation of SCI in recent curriculum reform and their disposition towards it. Therefore, the topic guides for teacher interviews included questions about the recent curriculum reform, and their thoughts about some basic features of SCI. This list of the basic features of SCI were formed by the researcher and presented to interviewees during data collection. The researcher drafted the list of basic features of SCI from the definitions and principles of SCI presented within key texts about LCE in the international literature. The researcher identified similar concepts from the varied definitions and principles of SCI presented within four texts and merged those concepts into a list of seven features of SCI. See Appendix VII for a summary table of the researcher's list of basic features of SCI, the concepts that informed them and background texts for those concepts. This list of basic features was drafted because the research participants showed no awareness and little understanding of SCI as a concept, during data collection.

The topic guides for focus groups were intended to generate data on the SSII students' experiences of classroom practice during their civic education lessons. They were also intended to generate data on students' reactions to the list of basic features of SCI

presented by the researcher. Therefore, the topic guides for focus groups included questions about usual classroom practice during their civic education lessons, students' contribution to their civic education lessons, the differences between classroom practice during the lesson observations and the usual classroom practice during their civic education lessons, and the students' thoughts about the basic features of SCI.

The topic guides for the school administrator interviews, the teacher interviews and the student focus groups followed a similar structure. Each topic guide was split into three sections. The first section included steps to be taken at the beginning of each conversation. Such steps included reiterating ethical issues, seeking permission to record, quick brief on the interview structure and asking opening questions. Opening questions were asked in order to ease participants into the interview and enable the researcher to acquire some background detail on the participants. For instance, the topic guides for the school administrators and the teacher interviews included opening questions about the interviewee's professional background and years of experience in school work. An opening question about how the selected teachers became civic education teachers in their schools was included in the topic guide for teacher interviews. Responses to this question helped to confirm whether or not the teachers had undertaken in-service training for the relatively new roles. The second section of the topic guides included the main interview questions and the third section included steps to wind down the interviews. In order to wind down the interviews, interviewees were asked to give personal suggestions or recommendations for future curriculum reform schemes in the Nigerian education system.

The first section of the topic guides for the student focus groups included steps to be taken at the beginning of the discussion. Such steps included addressing confidentiality, and confirming permission to record. The students were also encouraged not to talk over themselves during the discussions. The first section of the topic guides also included an ice breaker instead of opening questions in order to set off interaction within the focus groups. The second section of the topic guides for the focus groups included the main topics for discussion. The focus groups were intended to generate data from the interactions among group members therefore the researcher presented topics for the

students to discuss among themselves. As mentioned earlier, the topics included usual classroom practice during civic education lessons, students' contribution to their civic education lessons, the differences between classroom practice during the lesson observations and the usual classroom practice during their civic education lessons, and the students' thoughts about the basic features of SCI. The third section of the topic guides included steps to wind down the discussions. The students were given a multiple-choice question about what they would like their teacher to focus on during their lessons. See Appendix II for samples of all the topic guides used during data collection.

4.6 PILOTING

A pilot study was conducted three weeks before the main data collection. The pilot study was conducted to: (a) familiarise with the process of conducting research in a school setting and (b) test the initial drafts of topic guides for the school administrator interviews, teacher interviews and focus groups (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). The pilot study was beneficial and led to the review of the research procedures and instruments. The pilot study was conducted in a secondary school that was well known to the researcher. The study took place within the school premises after the researcher obtained consent from the principal of the school. The pilot study lasted for four days. The researcher conducted the general school observation on the first day. This observation was interrupted several times by school staff members who asked questions about the identity of the researcher and the purpose of the study. Due to this event, the researcher planned to seek proper and polite introduction to the whole school community during main data collection, especially after negotiating access to the schools selected for the main study. This step was intended to reduce interruptions to data collection by curious staff members in each school.

The lesson observations for the pilot study were conducted on the second day. The initial plan was to use an observation guide during the lesson observations, which would help the researcher to focus on particular features of the lesson. However, the researcher discovered that the observed lessons occurred at a fast-pace and did not leave room for

the researcher to use an observation guide. The initial plan was reviewed and the researcher decided to conduct unstructured observations during the main data collection. Research procedures were also revised to allow audio recording of lesson observations during the main study. The researcher also decided to take field notes during the lesson observations in order to record non-verbal communication between teachers and students and other events in the classroom.

The pilot interviews with the school principal and the SSII civic education teacher were conducted on the third day. The interviews were conducted to test the initial drafts of topic guides for the school administrator and the teacher interviews. The pilot interview with the school principal lasted for more than one hour and the principal complained about the length of the interview. The topic guide for the school administrators was reviewed after the interview. A number of recurring questions about the school culture had been included in the initial draft of the topic guide for the school administrator interviews. The repetitive questions were removed after the pilot interviews (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). Questions about the recent curriculum reform were also quite general and unfocused on SCI in the initial topic guides for the school administrator and the teacher interviews. Those questions were re-worded for clearer emphasis on SCI in the revised topic guides for interviews during main data collection.

The pilot focus groups were conducted with two groups of SSII students on the fourth day. The focus groups did not generate engaging conversations as anticipated by the researcher. Instead, the students responded to questions as they would in a group interview. The topic guides were reviewed after the pilot study to include issues for discussion rather than interview questions. The researcher also explained to the selected students that presented topics should be discussed by the whole group, during the main data collection. In addition, the researcher used prompts such as 'do you agree or disagree' to motivate group discussions during the main data collection (Kitzinger, 1995).

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS

A qualitative approach to data analysis was used in this research in order to generate "concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the raw data" (Thomas, 2006). As mentioned earlier in section 4.3, a number of steps were taken during data analysis. The first step was to read carefully through the entire data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The next step was to identify meaningful units of data relevant to the research topic and summarise them into words or short phrases – this process was referred to as open coding (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The meaningful units of data could be a phrase, sentence or whole paragraph in each transcript or field note. Afterwards, the codes were assembled and sorted into categories – this process involved removing all duplicated codes and putting together similar codes in one category (Ritchie, Spencer, et al., 2003). The first set of categories were also given short titles or labels that reflect or summarise the content of their codes – such labels were referred to as initial themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Burnard et al., 2008). The next phase involved identifying similar or overlapping categories or theme-piles and assembling them together (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Burnard et al., 2008). Finally, those categories were further refined and reduced, and their labels were revised (Burnard et al., 2008). This final set of categories and their labels (or themes) were used for the written account of the research findings in chapters 5 and 6.

During data analysis, the data for individual schools was first analysed (individual school analysis), then the final themes were brought together in order to make comparisons across the three schools (multiple case analysis). The data acquired through fieldwork included the field notes of the school and lesson observations, the audio recordings of the observations, the transcripts of the researcher's account during school observations, all the interview transcripts, the recording and transcripts of the focus groups and debrief sessions, photos of lesson notes, and a copy of the civic education syllabus. During the individual school analysis, the dataset from each school was divided into three parts. These include: (1) data related to the potential influences on SCI, (2) data related to classroom practice in civic education lessons and (3) data related to stakeholders' views about classroom practice in civic education lessons and SCI implementation.

The first category included data from the field notes and transcripts of school observations, the transcripts of the school administrator interviews, the transcripts of the student shadowing process, and the transcripts of the teacher interviews. This set of data was coded manually. The coding process generated an initial set of themes from the data. Those themes were further refined with reference to the literature on LCE reform in developing countries (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The final set of themes therefore emerged from data and literature. The final list of themes derived from the first set of data include: awareness and understanding of SCI, availability and procedures of in-service teacher training, classroom conditions and resources, focus of learning experiences, and the school community culture.

The second set of data was taken from audio recordings and field notes of lesson observations, pictures of lesson notes on civic education, the civic education syllabus, as well as the transcripts of the teacher interviews, the focus groups and debrief sessions[12]. The second data set was coded and sorted into four categories. These categories were then given labels/themes. The themes include - structure of civic education lessons, features of those lessons; the scope of class activities in those lessons, and the actions of teachers and students in those lessons.

The third set of data was taken from the transcripts of the teacher interviews, the focus groups and debrief sessions. This set of data was also coded manually. The codes were sorted into a number of categories. The categories related to features of SCI were identified separately. The categories related to classroom practice were also grouped under different themes. The categories related to the features of SCI were informed by the list of basic features of SCI suggested by the researcher during data collection. These set of themes therefore emerged from data and literature. The themes related to classroom practice were inductively generated from raw data. See Appendix IV for the list of codes, sub-categories and themes derived for the presentation of findings.

[12] Again, debrief sessions are used in this thesis to indicate short interviews with the teacher or short discussions with the students after each observed lesson

4.8 ETHICAL CONCERNS

Ethical practice is essential to maintain the integrity of educational research (Bryman, 2008; Mertens, 1998; Wiles, 2013). A number of ethical considerations were fulfilled in this research to match the guidelines of conducting proper educational research in and outside the UK. The first step taken by the researcher was to draft and discuss the ethical procedures of the research with a colleague at the Graduate school of education before the start of fieldwork in Nigeria. See Appendix VIII for the Ethics form used for this discussion. Initial contacts with the researched schools were made by sending copies of an information letter about this research to the school principals. Some of the public secondary schools that the researcher considered for the study sample could have been approached informally or through a familiar gatekeeper. However, the researcher chose to undertake the formal process to ensure that the terms of fieldwork in school settings would be properly negotiated. The information letter[13] included details about the aims of the research and its significance for the wider community. The researcher also had initial meetings with all the student participants as part of the negotiated terms for fieldwork. This was done in order to seek the consent of the students and eliminate the possibility of forced participation (BERA, 2011; Heath, Charles, Crow, & Wiles, 2007).

The students in Nigerian schools are sometimes forced to participate in fieldwork by the school administrators and school teachers who think that the students should naturally participate in any educational project. The researcher chose to seek informed with the belief that the students were capable of making informed decisions about their participation in this research. This was also done in accordance to the guidelines of conducting research within school settings. All the research participants were given an information sheet about the research and the opportunity to decide if they want to participate in the process (Orb, Eisenhauer, & Wynaden, 2001; Wiles, 2013). The sheet included concise details on the research objectives, the anticipated participants, the confidentiality statement, the planned use of data, the notice of the research approval by

[13] See Appendix I for a copy of the information letter

the Graduate School of Education (GSoE), and the complaints procedure for research (BERA, 2011; Fischman, 2000). The likely participants were also allowed the opportunity to ask questions about the research (Fischman, 2000). The researcher chose to re-negotiate consent with the student-participants at the start of each focus group since she was fully aware that students were selected by their classroom teachers and might have felt compelled to follow their teacher's decision (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Flewitt, 2005; Heath et al., 2007; Mertens, 1998). The students were also told that their responses will not be shared with any member of the school staff and this led to a more relaxed atmosphere during data collection (Crow, Wiles, Heath, & Charles, 2006; Flewitt, 2005).

All the research participants were informed of the right to withdraw from the research process in the consent form given to them and at the beginning of each conversation (BERA, 2011; Flewitt, 2005). A student in Jade used this right to withdraw before participating in a focus group and was replaced by another student. Confidentiality was addressed by deleting identifiers such as the name of participants and using pseudonyms instead (Cohen et al., 2011; Israel & Hay, 2006). Anonymity of context was not assured in research (Cohen et al., 2011). Anonymity here, is defined as not including identifiable information about the research site in the research account (Walford, 2005). The safety and well-being of participants was prioritised due to events of terrorism in Nigeria and all data collection procedures were conducted within the school premises and during school hours (Wiles, 2013).

4.9 TRUSTWORTHINESS (VALIDITY)

Measures to determine the quality of the research and protect its integrity were also applied in this study, including credibility, transferability, dependability and Confirmability (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2007; Krefting, 1991; Lewis & Ritchie, 2003). **Credibility** expresses the need to confirm that presented findings 'accurately' reflect the views of participants and experiences in the research context (Bryman, 2008; Mertens, 1998). This was done by conducting member checks of interview data, where summaries of the interview transcripts were given to each participant and changes were made to the

summaries as advised by the participants (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Shenton, 2004). Participants were informed at the beginning of their interviews that there were neither right nor wrong responses to prevent them from giving what they consider to be 'preferred social responses' (Krefting, 1991; Shenton, 2004). Participants were also reassured that the researcher was not acting as an inspector because they reflected such assumptions in their behaviour and statements.

A thick description of the selected schools is included in chapter 5, which addresses the **transferability** of this research to another context (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Shenton, 2004). Transferability replaces generalisation, which may not be applicable to qualitative research, since the former aims to investigate depth, instead of quantity or breadth of cases (Bryman, 2008; Lewis & Ritchie, 2003; Shenton, 2004). Thick description entails the process of providing details about participants, their background and characteristics, the study context(s), comparison of the research contexts, culture of the research contexts (Bryman, 2008; Krefting, 1991; Shenton, 2004). The provided account of selected schools in Chapter 5 covers significant details such as the location, school population, and age of the students. This account also helps to clarify the similarities and differences between individual schools (Bryman, 2008; Krefting, 1991; Mertens, 1998).

In order to ensure **dependability** in this research, the researcher kept a record of the phases involved in the research process. See Appendix VI for a summary of the data collection process across the researched schools. Dependability replaces reliability, which seeks to confirm if similar results can be acquired when research is conducted in a similar environment and with a similar set of the research participants (Lewis, 2003). Instead in qualitative research, dependability focuses on the quality and appropriateness of the data collection process and anticipates that changes might occur during fieldwork (Mertens, 1998). The changes that occurred during data collection in this research were also recorded so that readers can determine whether or not the proper process was followed during the research process. An account of such changes is included in chapter 8, which includes the methodological limitations of this research.

Finally, the researcher kept comprehensive records of the dataset acquired during fieldwork so that peer review can confirm whether or not conclusions of this research are supported by the data. This ensures confirmability in qualitative research. **Confirmability** ensures that the research findings are primarily reports of the participants' experiences and ideas rather than the opinions of the researcher (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2008). Even though qualitative research acknowledges the researcher's influence on the process of inquiry, confirmability ensures that the researcher has not allowed theoretical predispositions and personal values to control the entire research process (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Shenton, 2004). A reflexive account of the research process in this study also ensures its confirmability, and it is provided in the following section.

4.10 REFLEXIVE ACCOUNT

Reflexivity is a validation technique that is used to admit the researcher's subjectivity and standpoint (Creswell, 2007). It has also been described as a means of 'personal accounting' that enables the researcher to document interests and standpoints that could influence the process of inquiry (Hertz, 1997). The researcher admits to having past experiences, assumptions, and views that possibly informed this research and the researcher's interpretations of the research findings (Creswell, 2007). They are presented here in three segments – positioning prior to research, during data collection and in data analysis and reporting. An underlying theme to the reflections presented in this section is the positioning of the researcher as an insider or an outsider in the research process (Hockey, 1993; Martin, Stuart-Smith, & Dhesi, 1998; Mercer, 2007). This theme has been revisited in international literature in support of increased sensitivity to contexts and cultures within comparative and international research (L. Arthur, McNess, & Crossley, 2016; Crossley, Arthur, & McNess, 2015)

Positioning: prior to research

This research was conducted in a familiar context, I grew up in the country and had previously lived in the city. I assumed that knowing the people, the culture and language

would be an advantage in data collection. As mentioned earlier in chapter 1, the research was partly motivated by my MA study on LCE reform in sub-Saharan African countries. I assumed that I had a good grasp of the state of classroom practice within secondary school classrooms across my country, based on local literature. I also assumed that technical factors were the most significant influences on LCE reform in developing countries and embarked on research to test this theory. During the first two years of my PhD and while drafting the research plan, I became aware of constant generalisation about school experiences within the local literature in Nigeria. I was keen to avoid this weak point in my research therefore I conducted a comprehensive review of local literature on education reform and the current state of classroom practices in Nigerian secondary schools. Again, due to familiarity with the local context, I anticipated that I had enough cultural competence and skill to ensure that I would get valid responses from research participants.

Positioning: In data collection

During data collection, I used familiarity with local context to my advantage. I approached schools that I was already familiar with to reduce the possibility of rejection. I established quick rapport with participants because I was a member of the ethnic group, could speak the local language and assumed the role of a young-researcher during fieldwork. My interview questions were primarily focused on the contextual factors that influence SCI, based on my earlier assumptions. I also decided to ask indirect questions so that participants will not exaggerate the experiences of LCE reform in their schools. This became a problem when participants appeared to be giving the 'wrong responses'. For instance, I decided to ask the participants a broad question about the implementation of C2007. I thought this would encourage them to talk about changes to teaching methods. Instead, their responses focused on changes to the curriculum and the addition of new subjects. The interview questions were revised afterwards in order to ask direct questions about SCI implementation.

Conducting research in a familiar context also led to unanticipated experiences. Some schedules were changed in my favour so that I could conduct lesson observations within

the time that I had in the schools. For instance, a lesson observation was scheduled during the revision week in one of the schools because I started data collection when the end of the year examinations was already starting. I had assumed that communicating with students during data collection would be easy because I speak the local language. However, some students in the public schools found it difficult to communicate because the interview sessions were conducted using the English language. I told the students to speak in Yoruba if that would be more convenient but they seemed reluctant to speak differently from their peers. Furthermore, my familiarity with the local context seemed to reduce my curiosity about different features and events within the research context, which could have contributed to a 'thick description' of the schools. On occasion during the individual interviews, the participants did not respond well because it seemed like I was asking obvious questions, and in other cases because they assumed I already knew what they were talking about.

Positioning in data analysis and writing up

During data analysis, I discovered that my assumed knowledge of the research context was only partial. I also discovered that my interview questions had been somewhat narrow-minded. The emerging themes from data seemed novel but I discovered that those issues had been raised earlier in the international literature around LCE reform. Possibly, doing a more comprehensive literature review on LCE reform prior to data collection would have enhanced the scope and depth of my research. However, it was easy to observe a process of self-learning as the findings of my research challenged my own assumptions and thoughts about LCE reform. In data reporting, the original statements of the participants had to be checked against my interpretations. Given the possibility that I only report the views that correspond with my arguments. Some themes were generated from the thematic content analysis of data but excluded in this report because they did not answer my research questions. Examples include the personal recommendations for future curriculum reform in Nigeria, which the school administrators and the civic education teachers shared at the end of their interviews.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has covered the important details of the research design and the methodology of this study. The study has been set within post-positivist and interpretivist paradigms in order to enable the grasp of social reality within Nigerian schools and the views of participants who have experienced such reality. The qualitative approach to inquiry has been justified with the view that it enables research in natural settings. An account of the sampling procedures has been provided in order to highlight the range of research participants in the study, and the distinctions between the researched schools. The data collection methods, procedures, timeline and events have also been described to reveal the choices made by the researcher during fieldwork. An account of the item development process, specifically the design of topic guides for the school administrators and the teacher interviews, and the student focus groups was also provided. This account covered the researcher's decision to include a list of the basic features of SCI to research instruments during item development. This account provides the necessary background for the presentation of the research findings in Chapter 6, which includes the research account of the stakeholders' views about the basic features of SCI. The ethical procedures of this research were also reported to show that the guidelines for conducting research in the UK and outside the UK has been fulfilled in this research. The measures and steps taken to validate the process and the findings of this research were covered in the last two sections. A reflexive account of the overall research process was provided to fulfil an underlying premise to this study that the researcher must be critical of their role and bias in the different aspects of inquiry. This account also highlighted a process of self-learning for the researcher. The findings of this research are provided in the next two chapters of this thesis.

“All I’m armed with is research.” -Mike Wallace

Chapter V: Influences on SCI implementation and the reality of classroom practice within three secondary schools in Nigeria

INTRODUCTION

The findings of this study are presented in this chapter and the next. This chapter begins with a pen portrait of the three schools selected for the study. This account is descriptive but based on the data acquired during fieldwork in the three schools. The account is provided in order to introduce the research contexts and highlight the different classroom and learning conditions across the three schools. This account also leads into the next section, which presents the account of the research findings related to RQI – What contextual factors influence SCI implementation within three secondary schools in Nigeria? The account presented on RQI highlights some of the factors identified within the researched schools that are related to SCI implementation. This account provides evidence that the identified factors were feasible barriers to SCI implementation across the three schools. It also suggests that the three schools were ill-equipped for SCI implementation in their classrooms.

The research findings related to RQII - What are the features of classroom practice within the observed civic education lessons in the selected schools? – are also presented in the final section of this chapter. This account highlights the reality of classroom practice or the existing classroom practice during civic education lessons in the selected schools. This account is provided to first of all show the main features of classroom practice. These findings will be compared with the translations and requirements of SCI later on in the discussion to show whether or not they match the expected standards of LCE reform. The account of the research findings in this chapter and the next are presented to show comparisons between the evidence generated from the three schools. In other words, the research accounts will include constant reminders of the similarities or differences between the evidence acquired within the three schools, on the key themes derived from the research findings.

5.0 PEN PORTRAIT OF THE RESEARCHED SCHOOLS

School I: Lavender secondary school

Lavender is a private secondary school located in a city in the south-west region of Nigeria. The school is situated within the same federal university that established it in 1963. The university is the main sponsor and overseer of the school management. It is also Lavender's closest neighbouring community and the school staff members acknowledged its influence on the school's academic culture. Lavender is described as an international school because it is attended by students from different states in Nigeria and other countries in Africa. Lavender is a co-educational school and it has boarding facilities to cater for students from distant places. According to the principal, the student population had changed from children and wards of the university staff to include pupils from other communities, particularly because of the school's reputation in the local and wider community. Tuition fees are quite high in Lavender compared to other schools, so many of the students are considered to be from wealthy families. The population of students was estimated at 1600 in July 2014. Precise numbers are not available because the student admission continues during each academic year. The school's staff members included a principal, vice principal, 95 teachers (58 males and 37 females), 55 administrative personnel and 7 school administrators, at date of this research. The school infrastructure was spread over several plots of land, and contained about 25 school blocks, one standard size football field, one basketball court and a few administrative buildings. Other school facilities included laboratories for science subjects, language laboratories, a large computer room, a small school library, and a garden for landscape displays known as the geographical garden. The school also runs with the state power supply and a generator when electricity is not available.

The age range of students in Lavender is from 10 to 19 years old. Student enrolment is conducted through school examinations and interviews into junior secondary, senior secondary and advanced level programmes, during the academic year. The national curriculum was used to teach at the junior and senior levels of the secondary school, while advanced level programmes covered the Cambridge IGCSE curriculum. The school day

usually runs from 8am to 3pm and the teachers go to different classes at assigned periods. Class sizes ranged from 30 to 60 students, based on the physical size of the classroom. The school emphasised academic excellence and according to the students the school's expectation is that each student should obtain an average grade of 50% across all subjects, during each academic year.


Figure 5.1 Lavender secondary school

Every Monday during the school year, the student leadership club is allowed to give short presentations at the general assembly. This event generates a lively atmosphere at the school assemblies and it is considered as strong evidence of student engagement and involvement in school activities. Student involvement in school activities is encouraged through the appointment of student prefects at the beginning of each school year. The appointment process is usually managed by the staff members and involves the appointment of well-performing students to different positions in student leadership. Students with good academic performance are also allowed to represent the school in different competitions. Extra-curricular activities are also encouraged through voluntary involvement in school clubs. Discipline is emphasised in the school culture but the vice principal admitted that there were difficulties in maintaining the school rules. The main reason, according to the vice principal, was that most parents from the university were quite involved in the school administration and they were often able to amend rules in favour of their children. Students can be punished for unacceptable behaviour through

corporal punishment but the principal must be informed beforehand and approve such punishment.

School II: Cobalt secondary school

Cobalt is a public secondary school located beside a busy street market in the same city within the south-west region of Nigeria. Cobalt was sectioned off from a whole school in 2013. The whole school was established as a private school in 1964, but acquired by the Oyo state government a few years later. The school has been funded and supervised by the state government since that time. Between 2003 and 2012, a controversial education reform process in Nigeria initiated the sectioning of existing public secondary schools into smaller schools. In other words, one secondary school was split into two or three schools, and the schools continued to operate within the same compound. See more detail about this process in Appendix V.

Cobalt is therefore a secondary school that shares its facilities with two other schools. It is a co-educational school, mostly attended by the children of traders and artisans at the nearby market, and within the local community. Students do not pay tuition fees in Cobalt as with other public secondary schools in Nigeria. The student population of Cobalt was estimated at 700 in July 2014. The staff members included a principal, a vice principal, 15 teachers (10 male and 5 female) and a few school administrators at the date of this research. The school administrators operated across the three schools that were located in the same compound, therefore the number of staff members allocated to Cobalt varied from time to time. The school facilities included 3 school blocks, a small library, a science laboratory and store, and a computer laboratory with 7 desktop pcs at the time of this research. Cobalt runs with the community's power supply, which is often unavailable, and it had no generators at the date of this research.

The age range of students in Cobalt is from 12 to 17 years old, which is the official age allowed in public secondary schools. However, most public secondary schools encourage education for adults and allow the enrolment of students that are older than the official age. Students can be enrolled in public secondary schools once they acquire the pass

grades in the national common entrance examinations. They can also be enrolled through a transfer process from other secondary schools. The national curriculum was taught in Cobalt, as required for all public secondary schools. The school day runs from 8am to 2pm, and the teachers move between classes for assigned periods. Teaching in Cobalt was conducted by full-time teachers and a group of youth corps members, at the date of this research. The corps members are graduates of tertiary institutions who are allowed to work as substitute teachers in state-funded schools that have inadequate numbers of teaching staff. According to the vice principal, Cobalt made up for low numbers of staff by asking the available teachers to take on other teaching and non-teaching responsibilities. For instance, some teachers were assigned to teach more than one subject and across different classes.


Figure 5.2 Cobalt secondary school

The classroom spaces are either medium sized or large but the population could range from 60 to 150 students in a class. Students are expected to clean the school environment every Thursday morning as part of a community sanitation activity. Student involvement in school activities is also encouraged through the appointment of student prefects at the beginning of each school year. The appointment process is usually managed by the staff members and involves the appointment of well-performing students to different positions in student leadership. Student prefects with good academic performance are also allowed to represent the school in different competitions. Extracurricular activities are promoted during the school year and the literary and debating club activities take place every

Thursday afternoon. Discipline is strongly promoted in Cobalt and student punishment can include severe measures such as kneeling on stones, flogging and verbal abuse.

School III: Jade secondary school

Jade is a public secondary school located at the borders of the same city in the south-west region of Nigeria. It is located within a growing village and surrounded by thick vegetation. It is located about 15 miles away from the nearest local market and accessible by a dirt road. It was established by the state government in 1980 and is still funded and supervised by the government. It is a co-educational school and it is mostly attended by children of farmers and artisans from the local community. Some of the students come from more remote communities in the vicinity and walk for long distances each school day. Jade does not have boarding facilities and its school day starts later than usual because of the late arrival of many students. Students do not pay tuition fees and according to the principal, most of the students are from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. The student population was estimated at 350 students in July 2014, but the vice principal admitted that this number varies from time to time because student attendance was quite irregular. Also, some students were not included in the student population because they were only enrolled in Jade to re-sit national examinations and did not attend the school regularly. The staff members included a principal, four vice principals, 13 teachers (6 male and 7 female), and 3 school administrators at the date of this research. The school facilities included three school blocks, a medium sized library, a science laboratory, and a store. Both the library and the science laboratory were being used as classrooms during the period of research. According to a vice principal, classes were moved to the library because the available chairs and desks were being used for ongoing examinations in the school. The school had three large farms and a goat pen. It runs with the community power supply, which is scarcely available and had no generators at date of this research.

The age range of students is from 12 to 17 years, but some students above the official school age were also enrolled in the school at the date of this research. The enrolment of those adult students is accepted in Jade because the school caters for rural communities.

Students were enrolled with the results of the national common entrance examinations. The national curriculum was taught in Jade, as required of all public secondary schools. The school day should run from 8am to 2pm officially, but the school day begins around 8.30 to 9am and students are able to leave from 1pm. According to one of the vice principals, such concessions are allowed because many of the students travelled long distances to reach the school. Poor class roofing was also cited as a reason for early closing hours, because it allowed extreme heat on sunny days and discouraged afternoon learning activities. Teaching in Jade is conducted by the teachers and vice principals, who can also be assigned to teach more than one subject. This was done to make up for the low numbers of staff members and the frequent transfer of teachers from the remote school to other schools in the city.


Figure 5.3 Jade secondary school

Class sizes in Jade ranged from 50 to 70 students in a medium sized classroom. Teachers move between different classes for their assigned periods. Students are expected to clean the school compound and work on the school farms, every Thursday morning during the school year. The principal said that working on the school farms is included in the sanitation activity required in all state-funded schools across the country. Student involvement in school activities is encouraged through the appointment of student prefects at the beginning of each school year. The appointment process is usually managed by the staff members and involves the appointment of well-performing students

to different positions in student leadership. Student prefects with good academic performance are also allowed to represent the school in different competitions. Extracurricular activities are encouraged during the school year, and the literary and debating club seminars are held once in a term. Discipline is also promoted in Jade, and punishment methods can include flogging, cleaning the school compound and working on the school farms.

Comparison of selected schools

The differences between the three schools were explicit in terms of school facilities, student-teacher ratio and classroom conditions. Lavender had better school infrastructure, spacious and comfortable classrooms, model ratio of 20 students to 1 teacher, and more learning aids, compared to Cobalt and Jade. For instance, the school infrastructure in Cobalt was poorly maintained and most of the classrooms were crowded. The classrooms in Cobalt also lacked good seating plans as well as chairs and desks; and some of the students sat on classroom window sills during their lessons. The student-teacher ratio should have been estimated at 50 to 1 teacher, as required of public secondary schools but most classes ranged from 60 to 150 students. Only a few learning aids were available for teaching science subjects and they were locked away in the school's store. Jade had the poorest school facilities, compared to Lavender and Cobalt. None of the classrooms contained ceilings or window frames. Some of the students in Jade's classrooms also sat on window sills or desks or whatever was convenient. Most of the classrooms in Jade were also crowded and rowdy. The student-teacher ratio was calculated 30 students to 1 teacher, but the population of students in a class could be more than 50 students. Learning aids were insufficient in Jade because only a few resources were available for different subjects and they were not used frequently.

A few differences were also observable in the school and learning culture across the three schools. Lavender placed more emphasis on academic excellence and student expression than the other two schools. For instance, Lavender's school mission was easily observable on a signboard at the entrance of the school. Lavender also allowed student presentations at the school assembly. None of these features were observed in Cobalt and Jade. Also,

teachers appeared to have less workloads in Lavender, compared to the other two schools. For instance, a teacher in Lavender would usually teach 3 – 6 school periods in a week, while individual teachers in Cobalt and Jade taught at least 9 school periods in a week. The disciplinary procedures in the three schools were also different. The most severe discipline measures were used in Cobalt, and the most lenient measures were used in Lavender. The features mentioned here are not deemed to be entirely representative of the differences between public and private secondary schools in Nigeria, because each school has their own unique conditions and learning culture.

See the table below for a snapshot of important differences between the three schools.

School features	Lavender	Cobalt	Jade
Physical state of classroom	Good environment, available desks & chairs, good seating plan	Poor environment, lacking desks & chairs, crowded classes	Poor environment, lacking desks & chairs, crowded classes
Learning aids	Computers, textbooks, visual aids for different subjects	Few computers & few learning aids for science projects only	Few learning aids for science and other subjects
Student-teacher ratio	20:1	50:1	30:1
Class sizes	30 – 60	60 – 150	50 – 70
Teachers' workload	3 – 6 periods per week	≥ 9 periods per week	≥ 9 periods per week

Table 5.1: snapshot of school differences

*Please note, national examination/inspection results for these schools are not included due to restricted access.

5.1 CONTEXTUAL FACTORS THAT SHAPE SCI IMPLEMENTATION IN THE SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

This section presents the research findings related to RQI – What contextual factors influence SCI implementation within three secondary schools in Nigeria? The research findings were drawn from a dataset of the field notes and transcripts of school observations, the transcripts of the school administrator interviews, the transcripts of the student shadowing process, and the transcripts of the teacher interviews. A thematic content analysis was conducted on this data set. The key themes derived from data analysis are presented below:

5.1.1 PARTICIPANTS' AWARENESS OF SCI IN CURRICULUM REFORM

The school administrators and the civic education teachers from the three schools showed poor awareness of the fact that SCI had been introduced through the recent curriculum reform. They said during their interviews that C2007 included the addition of trade subjects and civic education to the secondary school curriculum. The school administrators especially focused on the addition of trade subjects to the secondary school curriculum and described their views about this process. They did not indicate that they were aware of any changes to teaching methods until they were asked during the interviews. They also responded in different ways after they were asked about the changes to teaching methods. For instance, the school administrators in Lavender suggested that they were familiar with SCI as a concept by defining it as "participatory teaching" and claiming that it was already in practice in the school's classrooms. The principal however insisted that SCI was not required in the Nigerian education system. The following comment includes the principal's views about SCI:

> "… there is this Montessori education and teaching is expected to be pedagogical, with that we see that the return of this Montessori pedagogy. It involves students being involved in activities, and that is where this student-centeredness that you are asking about came from, it involves students being able to be involved…
> It is not a standard in the overall Nigerian education context, its novel and that is the outcome of strategic thinking, because teaching is dynamic, the world itself is dynamic and if you don't make research and strategize then you'll be living in yesterday" LSp

On the other hand, school administrators in Cobalt and Jade indicated that they were unfamiliar with SCI as a concept and unaware that it was recommended in C2007. The following extract was taken from the interview held with the principal in Cobalt:

> Researcher: Are you aware of any required teaching methods, in this curriculum reform?
> CSp: except for the new subjects that I've just said… that the teachers will have to get used to it. Because anything new you have to learn it. You have to learn the nitty gritty of the thing, so as to be able to pass it across to the children…
> Researcher: there is a particular suggestion for student-centred practice, where the students are (principal cuts in)
> CSp: student-centred? (Yes)
> CSp: in the classroom? (Yes)
> CSp: is it by the principal or by who is supervising? (By the teachers)
> CSp: teachers? Using student-centred methods? (Researcher begins to explain features of SCI)

Interview transcript – Cobalt

The civic education teachers from the three schools were also unaware that SCI was introduced in C2007. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, the addition of student activities to the syllabus[14] of different subjects was the primary indication of SCI according to local translations. However, the civic education teachers did not make any references to this indication when they were asked about the recent curriculum reform. Instead they talked about the addition of new subjects to the secondary school curriculum. They also explained that civic education was just added to the secondary school curriculum but failed to mention the new recommendations for teaching the subject. The civic education teacher in Lavender reflected this stance in the following comment:

> The new curriculum that we are supposed to work with requires that we teach civic education in line with some other subjects. In the junior secondary school, we are supposed to teach civic education with social studies, Christian religious studies, Islamic religious studies and security education, so we have five subjects in one. LScvt

The responses of the civic education teachers were similar to the responses of the school administrators after they were asked about the changes to teaching methods, during their interviews. The civic education teacher in Lavender indicated familiarity with SCI as a

[14] A document that records the topics to be taught

concept and defined it as participatory teaching. The civic education teacher in Cobalt also suggested that she was familiar with SCI by sharing a vague definition of the term. The civic education teacher in Jade did not show such indications and admitted that he was unaware of SCI as a concept and as a recommendation through C2007. These responses suggested that school administrators and civic education teachers in the selected schools had little awareness about SCI as a concept or a recommendation in curriculum reform even though they were supposed to be involved in its implementation.

5.1.2 AVAILABILITY OF IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING

Data from the interviews with the school administrators and the teachers indicated that the three teachers did not receive in-service training for teaching civic education as a new subject. The civic education teachers had taught other subjects in their schools before the curriculum reform, especially subjects within the social science discipline including History, and Social studies. They were re-assigned to teach civic education in their schools after the recent curriculum reform. The teachers said that the school authorities assigned them to teach civic education because they were already familiar with teaching social science subjects. They also suggested that school made the decision because their academic or background qualifications are in social science subjects. The civic education teacher in Lavender described her appointment without in-service training in the following comment:

> I came in as a history teacher, Civic education was not part of the curriculum then, but after the new education reform I was told to teach civic education. I think I was the only one fit to teach civic education among all the teachers in the school. Because in Nigerian universities we don't have civic education as a discipline so those who studied political science, history or social studies in tertiary schools can teach civic education. Since I studied political science and history I was able to teach civic education. LScvt

The civic education teacher in Cobalt also maintained that her background qualifications were sufficient to teach the subject syllabus. The teacher described the skills needed to teach civic education in the following comment:

> I had my first degree at the University of Ibadan, I read political science combined with adult education I used my first degree for my appointment… I was teaching Government before. I was posted to the junior school but later transferred back to this senior school to teach Civic education, because they are related courses. CScvt

These responses reflected beliefs that in-service training was not needed to teach civic education or to familiarise the teachers with the civic education syllabus, through which SCI had been introduced. Besides, the school administrators in Cobalt and Jade said that they could not recall whether or not any in-service teacher training programmes had been organised for their civic education teachers. They also mentioned that in-service trainings were rarely held in their schools. The principal in Jade described her thoughts about this process in the following comment:

> It's not the work of the principal. its government problem to train teachers and they've been doing it but you know according to them teachers are many they are doing it bit by bit it may be turn of some people today. JSp

In contrast, the principal in Lavender said that the school had organised seminars for their school staff during the past year. His descriptions of the training event suggested that it included training on teaching methods. However, his responses did not confirm whether or not the training included ideas about SCI. The principal described the content of training programmes in Lavender in the following comment:

> We organise in house seminars every year for our teachers, at the beginning of the term to prepare them for the incoming session to reenergise them to refill them, so we bring in the resource persons in the field of education to come in and refresh their minds and brains, we also do this in the course of the session just to improve on our capacity…
> The last training session we had was a three-day programme, with resource persons from the institute /faculty of education with sessions in teaching methodology, and teachers' health. LSp

Even though the teachers did not show any awareness of the new recommendations for classroom practice in curriculum reform, SCI implementation would have simply meant following the instructions in the civic education syllabus. Also, monitoring the teachers' activities during classroom learning would have been an important way to show that they followed instructions. However, data from the school observations and the interviews suggested that there was no emphasis on the monitoring or supervision of teaching methods across the three schools. In Cobalt and Jade especially, the teacher supervision

process including internal supervision and external school inspections, focused on the importance of attendance and well-prepared lesson notes rather than teaching methods. Furthermore, the school administrators and the civic education teachers reflected beliefs that the supervision process was sufficient despite the changes that occurred through recent curriculum reform. The principal in Jade described the teacher supervision process in the following comment:

> I go around every morning after the assembly and after the teachers have done their registration, I go around to see any class where there is no teacher. I ask them to go and call their teacher. If their teacher is not around he or she will tell me the reason why they came late and sometimes if the teacher has to wait in the afternoon to conduct the lesson for the children, he or she will … apart from going around, when we have meetings we do encourage the teachers and we tell them that it is our duty or the reason why we are here is to teach these children. We won't be here if there is no student. JSp

In Lavender, the scope of the teacher supervision process was broader but also missed any focus on teaching methods. Teacher supervision in the school emphasised attendance, well prepared lesson notes and teacher's behaviour during lessons. The school administrators also suggested that the process was sufficient to ensure good practice in the school's classrooms. The vice principal's focus during the teacher supervision process in Lavender was illustrated in the following comment:

> I go around the classes to make sure teachers attend their classes promptly and that they actually teach because we have some teachers that they may attend classes but when they get to those classes they do not actually teach. They prefer to go into irrelevant things with the students, so to stop that I go around classes on daily basis. LSvp

Overall, the interview dataset indicated that in-service training on SCI was not provided for the civic education teachers during the implementation of C2007. Also, the teacher supervision process, which would have helped to determine whether the civic education teachers followed the instructions of their subject syllabus, did not give any attention to teaching methods.

5.1.3 CLASSROOM AND LEARNING CONDITIONS

The school observations suggested that the classrooms in Cobalt and Jade were in a poor physical state. Many classrooms in both schools were dilapidated. Most of the classrooms also lacked weather proofing measures such as good ceilings and window frames. In Cobalt and Jade, classrooms contained a clutter of school desks, chair-desks and/or improvised seating. The organisation of desks in rows was hardly evident and movement within the classrooms was limited. Some students had to sit on the empty window sills during the lessons due to the lack of seating facilities. The following extract was taken from the field notes of the school observations conducted in Cobalt:

> The desk spaces were cluttered in most classrooms and some students did not have spaces to sit. Access to the centre and back of some classrooms was restricted due to the large class sizes and cluttered desk arrangement... Most classrooms looked untidy and disorganised. Some of the classrooms had no window frames and some students were able to sit on the window sills. The ceilings had fallen out in some of the classrooms, so the heat was felt more intensely during the day. The school atmosphere was quite noisy due to lack of teachers in most classrooms.
>
> Transcribed field notes – Cobalt

The state of classrooms in Jade was poorer compared to Cobalt. For instance, many of the classrooms in Jade were not habitable due to the lack of chairs and desks. The senior year students who were enrolled in different subject disciplines but within the same class year were combined in the few classrooms that contained some chairs and desks. This led to overcrowding in the classrooms. In Jade, physically small classrooms contained between 50 – 70 students while larger classrooms contained between 70 – 100 students. Overcrowded classes were observed in Cobalt as well. Most classrooms in Cobalt contained between 60 – 150 students.

The vice principal also identified similar problems within classrooms in Cobalt, especially the fact that the school teachers were required to teach overcrowded classes daily. According to the vice principal, such physical and environmental factors contributed to teachers' exhaustion and negligence in classroom practice. The vice principal's thoughts about factors affecting teacher motivation in Cobalt was illustrated in the following comment:

> It is a problem that we are coping with a large number of students, especially for subjects that have to be taught every day. If a teacher has to manage about 300 students on a daily basis it can be exhausting… The environment is not even conducive. We thank God that it is the raining season now. If it were during the dry season, you will be unable to stay in the class because of the heat that will be emitting from the students you will want to leave the class environment as early as possible. CSvp

The civic education teacher in Jade also talked about poor classroom conditions in the school. He pointed to the lack of school desks, chairs, and electricity as indicators of poor classroom and learning conditions in Jade. He also said that classrooms without ceilings encouraged intense heat in the afternoons. The civic education teacher argued that poor classroom and learning conditions affected teacher's motivation during the lessons in Jade. These views are illustrated in the following comment:

> the working conditions is not okay the environment is not conducive for learning to be candid… there is not enough table and chairs for the students 6 or 7 students use to sit down in a chair that is meant for 2 students imagine that… Look at the classroom in the afternoon, when you stay here you will be feeling serious heat and when you are imparting knowledge in the afternoon and the students are feeling heat what do you want them to learn? JScvt

Furthermore, the school administrators and the civic education teachers in Cobalt and Jade complained about heavy workload for teachers, and described it as a factor that affects teacher's motivation in the classroom. The vice principal in Cobalt said that the number of teachers provided by the state government did not match the school's demand. Due to such circumstances, available teachers were assigned to cover more than the appropriate number of classes. This situation increased the workload of teachers in the school. The vice principal in Cobalt described the teachers' workload and reasons for it in the following comment:

> We don't have enough teachers. In normal conditions, we should have between two to four teachers teaching the general subjects, but most times we don't have teachers. Instead, we have to use teachers for subjects that are different from their disciplines e.g. a teacher that studied physics can be asked to teach mathematics. CSvp

The civic education teacher in Cobalt also said that she taught 9 – 12 classes each week, which added up to teaching 18 to 24 periods in a week. The school administrators and the civic education teacher described similar problems in Jade. The civic education teacher in

Jade was assigned to teach three different subjects - Accounts, Economics and Civic education across different school years. This added up to more than 24 periods in a week. The school administrators and the civic education teachers in Cobalt and Jade argued that such workload reduced the teachers' effectiveness in the classroom. The civic education teacher in Jade described the implications of being overworked in the following comment:

> … the number of teachers is not enough, we are not enough. Look at a system whereby a teacher is teaching two or three subjects in the junior secondary school classes or senior secondary school classes every week. That teacher will not be effective. I mean, the way he is going to be passing knowledge will not be effective because the work is too cumbersome for him. JScvt

None of the identified concerns within classrooms in Cobalt and Jade were observed in Lavender. The classrooms in Lavender were well-maintained, in good condition and had sufficient seating. The organisation of desks in row were quite visible and movement within the classrooms was not restrained. The classrooms also contained fewer students compared to the other two schools. The physically small classrooms in Lavender contained between 25 – 40 students while the large classrooms contained between 30 – 60 students. The teacher's workload in Lavender was also modest compared to the other two schools. The civic education teacher taught only her subject in the SSII classes, which added up to less than four periods in a week on a full-time work basis. Overall, poor classroom and learning conditions implied potential limitations to SCI implementation in Cobalt and Jade. However, good classroom and learning conditions in Lavender implied that the civic education teacher would have had less barriers to SCI implementation.

5.1.4 EXAMINATION ORIENTATION

Data from the school observations and interviews suggested that the learning culture was examination-driven in all of the three schools. The learning culture in Lavender was observable in the school's mission statement and the views shared by school administrators, a shadowed student and the civic education teacher. For instance, the mission statement, which was written on a schoolboard at the entrance of the school

included aims for its students to achieve the best grades in school and national examinations. The statement was illustrated in the following excerpt:

> Mission: To become the continuous winner of the overall best result award in WASSCE, NECO, IGCSE and Cambridge A-level worldwide.
> To be among the top ten secondary schools in Nigeria
>
> Mission statement, Lavender

According to the shadowed student in lavender, the school also stressed good performance in examinations for their students. She said that students in lavender needed very good grades to be promoted to the next class year. She also said that students were expected to perform well during examinations and this reduced students' motivation to choose a subject for study purely based on interest. In other words, more students choose a subject to get good grades and not because they are interested in it. The shadowed student described expectations for learning in Lavender in the following comment:

> We can't just attend a class because we want to know more about a subject. We have to write the examinations and score well, because it will have an effect on our final grades. The average grade is decided by total marks in all subjects divided by total number of subjects studied. If this average grade is less than 50 points, the student will be asked to repeat the school year. LSshe

The learning culture in Cobalt and Jade was also observable in the views shared by the school administrators and the civic education teachers. The school administrators in Cobalt and Jade showed considerable focus on students' performance during examinations. The principal in Cobalt described expectations for students learning with much emphasis on good academic performance and honest behaviour during examinations. She also explained that a focus on examination determined classroom practice in the classrooms. The principal described the link between learning and examinations in Cobalt in the following comment:

> Nowadays we don't want exam malpractice so we have to make the children to understand what we are teaching them. When I teach a child something and they don't understand I will have to go over it again. If I don't teach a child a topic and I find it in the external exam or any exam I will feel bad and in such situations, I will be tempted to do exam malpractice for the child. But if the children are competent, and we have taught them and they know everything, the teachers will sit down and relax when they have exams. We don't need to give them orijo and they will be able to defend their certificate in the future. Orijo is exam malpractice, giving students insight or answers to the exam question. CSp

Similarly, the school administrators in Jade described the school's learning culture as the means to achieve good results in school and national examinations. They also placed emphasis on examinations. The vice principal said that students' scores in their examination would determine whether or not they get promoted to another class year. In other words, students learning in Jade would be assessed through good scores in examinations. The vice principal described the purpose of examinations in Jade in the following comment:

> The criteria that we used for promotion in the last two years, I told the principal that it was too low. This year we plan to raise it so that no students will be promoted with an average score of 20 percent or grades such as that. If a student cannot achieve an average score of 40 to 50 percent in 5 papers, such a student should repeat the school year. JSvp

5.1.5 SCHOOL CULTURE

Data suggested that the staff members and students in the three schools had relatively similar beliefs about student-teacher relationships. Each school reflected a hierarchical system of relations within its community, although to different degrees. The higher standard of hierarchical relations between teachers and students was observed in Cobalt and Jade. Student-teacher relationships in both schools were expected to prioritise submission to and respect for the adult. The school administrators said that such expectations reflected the culture of the wider community.

> In normal circumstances, students must respect their teachers, whether the teacher is right or wrong ... it is a process of don't question the authority of those that are a little bit older than you. That syndrome is there and part of our culture, it's an African culture. CSvp

The students were also expected to run errands for their teachers and other staff members. The vice principal in Cobalt described this as a sign of positive relationships between staff members and students. This is because the wider community culture expects adults to treat young people like their own children and vice versa. In this way student roles in the school community are defined as lower, child-like and being at service to their teachers and other staff members. The shadowed student in Cobalt described the nature and implication of student-teacher relations in the following comment:

> Most teachers call me to record the test or exam scores for them, they send me on errands, and I help them with various things in the staffroom. we are not allowed to say that doing these things for them is a distraction because we are also like children to them and as they treat their children, that's how they treat us. CSshe

The school administrators and the civic education teachers in Cobalt and Jade also shared similar views that there should be appropriate distance between teachers and students to maintain respect. Respect for school teachers was also ensured through corporal punishment. The principal in Jade described students' punishment as a way to ensure respect and conformity in the following comment:

> They have to respect their teachers, unless they want to be caned seriously. One of the students was unruly today. He was severely punished there and I was looking at him and his teacher. We allow this so that others will learn from him. JSp

The problem with this disposition was highlighted by the vice principal and the shadowed student in Cobalt, who stated that student punishment may be used for unjust reasons or get out of hand. The vice principal in Cobalt said that student punishment had become uncontrollable in the school and argued that this was done to sustain teachers' authority over students. The vice principal said that the use of disciplinary measures to ensure hierarchical relations in Cobalt have continued despite these concerns. He described the process and likely outcome of student punishment in the following comment:

> Empires are built around some teachers, through the issue of cane and learning. They try to motivate a student by using punishment and I tell them if you want to feed a goat, and the food is there but you are holding a stick. That goat that sees you standing around will not come, talk less of when you are holding a cane. I liken these circumstances to that. You want students to learn and you have created fear, they will not learn anything. CSvp

Lavender encouraged moderate relationships between staff and students, but it also reflected a hierarchical culture within the school community. Student-teacher relationships were also expected to prioritise respect for the school teachers and staff members. However, some measures were put in place to balance the power relations between the teachers and their students. For instance, student punishment was permitted in Lavender but conducted less frequently than in Cobalt and Jade. The school also assigned only a few teachers for student punishment to prevent unregulated occurrences. The civic education teacher in Lavender described this process in the following comment:

> In the Nigerian context, it is okay to spank the child but in this school, we don't usually spank children. Not all teachers can pick up a cane and spank a child. Some of us can because we have been instructed to do that. But we don't give room for anybody to start spanking children all around. LScvt

The vice principal in Lavender said that allegations against students are usually investigated before punishment. Students were also allowed to report their teachers for inappropriate behaviour to the school management. However, these measures did not erase the traditional expectations for student-teacher relationships in Lavender. The civic education teacher and the shadowed student in Lavender shared similar views that student-teacher relations should mirror parent to child relationships. The shadowed student in Lavender described her expectations for student-teacher relations in the following comment:

> Some of our teachers are so strict and some of them like proving authority that they are older and so we have to respect them so they make ugly faces in class and shout to tell us to keep quiet. Our teachers define respect as power. I think a teacher that I respect the most behaves like a mother, she has feelings, it pains her when her students are failing, because there are teachers that don't care… LSshe

The expectations for student-teacher relations and measures taken to ensure respect for teachers across the three schools indicated hierarchical value systems, which are not compatible with the democratic principles of SCI.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The contextual or school-related factors that influenced SCI implementation in the selected schools include low awareness of SCI, lack of in-service teacher training with emphasis on SCI, poor classroom and learning conditions, an examination-driven orientation to learning, and a hierarchical school culture. The poor level of awareness about SCI deduced from the responses of stakeholders and civic education teachers across the three schools was a limitation to SCI. This research finding compares with previous research that has shown that adequate awareness and understanding of reform is essential to the successful SCI implementation in different countries (Attard, Di Loio, et al.,

2010). The lack of SCI-focused in-service teacher training in the three schools was also a limitation. This research finding also compares with previous research that identified the lack of in-service teacher training as an obstacle to SCI implementation in different countries (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011). The research findings indicated that the civic education teachers were not specifically monitored on the teaching methods that they used during their lessons. This would have been an alternative way to ensure that the teachers followed instructions for teaching activities and made changes to classroom practice in their lessons, as required by the recent curriculum reform. This research finding is in line with arguments in international literature that highlight the impact of teacher professionalism on LCE reform in Africa. Observations that teacher education and teaching practices remain authoritarian are reported to show that they are constraints to the implementation of LCE (Harber, 2012).

Research in different African countries has recorded observations of – teacher education that perpetuates traditional teaching, teacher roles that reflect authoritarian and bureaucratic schooling systems, and a sustained culture of corporal punishment (Harber, 2012). Such observations reinforce the argument that teacher professionalism in different contexts can also be an obstacle to LCE reform. The poor classroom and learning conditions observed in Cobalt and Jade was also a limitation to SCI implementation. This research finding compares to previous research that has identified poor physical conditions, overcrowded classrooms and heavy teacher workloads as obstacles to SCI implementation in different countries (Bantwini, 2010). The examination-driven orientation to learning observed in the three schools was another limitation. This research finding agrees with the argument in the international literature that the pressure to succeed in examinations is a threat to SCI in different countries (Ginsburg, 2006). The hierarchical school system observed in Cobalt and Jade was also a limitation to SCI implementation. This research finding reiterates previous research evidence that SCI and other LCE strategies can only thrive within individualist, democratic and egalitarian value systems (Ginsburg, 2006).

These five contextual factors that limit SCI implementation were observed within the two public secondary schools. The same factors were observed in the only private secondary

school, excluding poor classroom and learning conditions and an extreme hierarchical system. The research findings showed that good classroom conditions and a manageable teachers' workload in Lavender was a beneficial factor to SCI implementation in the school. It is important to mention here that the good classroom and learning conditions in Lavender cannot be compared to the classroom and learning conditions in western schools. The existence of a moderate hierarchical school system in Lavender was also a beneficial factor to SCI implementation. Indications of less authoritarian power relations between the teachers and students in Lavender suggested that it would be better placed to encourage the democratic participation needed for SCI implementation compared to Cobalt and Jade.

Overall, the research findings presented in this section showed that there were barriers to SCI implementation in the selected public and private secondary schools. This indicates that the three schools to different degrees were ill-equipped and hardly motivated for the implementation of LCE reform in Nigeria. The varying degrees are based on the deduced existence of some beneficial factors for SCI implementation in Lavender.

5.2 CLASSROOM PRACTICE IN CIVIC EDUCATION LESSONS

RQII – What are the features of classroom practice within the observed civic education lessons in the selected schools?

RQII attempted to clarify whether or not SCI was implemented in the three schools despite the limitations identified in section 5.1. On one hand, this research question could generate evidence that **SCI was implemented** through descriptions of the available form of classroom practice and explanations of the extent of implementation across the three schools. On the other hand, this research question could generate evidence **that SCI was not implemented** through descriptions of the available form of classroom practice in the three schools and explanations of how such practice differs from SCI recommendations. The account in this section addresses RQII through descriptions of the main features of observed classroom practice across the three schools. This evidence is then used to argue

classroom practice in the observed civic education lessons did not match adequate translations of SCI. The dataset of lesson observations, teacher interviews and student focus groups was qualitatively analysed for RQII. This section presents evidence on the key themes that emerged from the data analysis.

5.2.1 STRUCTURE OF THE LESSONS

The civic education lessons observed by the researcher in the three schools followed a relatively similar pattern. All three teachers reviewed what was learnt in the previous class at the beginning of their lessons. This was done through question-and-answer sessions or recitations, where teachers made incomplete statements that got chorused answers from students. A 'common' conversation at the beginning of the civic education lessons was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Lavender:

> Teacher: in the last class, I talked about drugs and drug abuse, and we were able to establish the fact that drugs means what?
> Students: any substance
> Teacher: any substance other than food that does what?
> Students: that alter the normal body function
> Teacher: or that does what?
> Students: damages
> Teacher: (cuts in) a disarrangement or problem or disorganisation of the body system. And we said that there are VARIOUS kinds of what?
> Students: drugs
> Teacher: that we have inhalant, we have stimulant, different
> Students: opium, (Calling out different kinds of drugs)

Field notes, Lavender

The lessons then progressed with the teacher's explanation of subject content, and the writing of notes on the chalkboard. The main part of the observed civic education lessons also involved continuous use of recitations and question-and-answer sessions. This frequent use of recitations was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Cobalt:

> 10:39 the teacher continues to lead students in the call and response act (recitations)
> 10:40 teacher continues to explain subject content
> 10:41 recitation continues
> 10:41 teacher pauses to scold some students
> 10:43 the teacher continues to explain subject content

10:45 the teacher continues to lead students in recitations
10:46 the teacher continues to explain subject content, and asks questions from time to time

Field notes, Cobalt

The observed civic education lessons also concluded with a summary of the points discussed. The teachers concluded their lessons by giving assignments to the class and/or asking whether the students had any further questions or queries about the contents of each lesson. This end of lesson routine was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Lavender:

Teacher: and you know that some of the people that take these drugs do not know that it leads to, it leads to what? (Students remain silent) Infection…
Teacher: so those are the modes of drug abuse and?
Students: effects
Teacher: effects of drug abuse and so we were able to establish what? Definition of drugs, modes of drugs and?
Students: effects
Teacher: of drug abuse, and you have an assignment. (Dictating) Write on the activities of NDLEA and their contributions to combat the problem of drug abuse in Nigeria (Repeats the question twice).
Teacher: any question?
Students: (in chorus) No
Teacher: so, I am through with my class

Field notes, Lavender

5.2.2 FEATURES OF THE LESSONS

The civic education lessons observed in the three schools involved prevalent use of the teacher's explanations. Recitations and question-and-answer sessions also occurred frequently, alongside the teacher's explanations. Another predominant feature of the observed civic education lessons was the teachers' use of examples and illustrations. The process of giving examples involved frequent citations from the teachers' personal experience or references to shared experiences within the wider community. The use of personal examples in the teacher's explanations was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Lavender:

Teacher: so, drug abuse is not just that you take marijuana or you take cocaine or you take heroine, No. it might be that you take usual what? Pills, but you take them in larger or non-prescribed quantities. Another mode of abuse is what we call what? (Students remain silent).
Teacher: self-medication, as a matter of fact so many of us. In fact, all mothers are guilty of self-medication. That is just the truth, like when I went to the hospital and my first daughter had what? Malaria and they said okay use this medicine. They gave us paracetamol, vitamin C and I said don't worry that is fine. When the younger sister now comes up with what? Just a little fever, looking feverish. I said no problem just bring the medicine that the doctor gave me. (Students are laughing) that is what?
Students: self
Teacher: (cuts in) its self-medication, most of us we become doctors overnight. We will say I know this already, even if you go to the hospital this is what they will give you. And sometimes you can be using piriton and a cough did not go away, the next thing you use is what? Antibiotics

Field notes, Lavender

The civic education teachers also gave illustrations of events that had happened to people that they know in order to emphasise the point of their explanations. They shared such examples as a way to show first-hand knowledge and expertise regarding subject content. This use of examples was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Jade:

Teacher: are you getting me now?
Students: yes
Teacher: so, don't use any sharp objects, don't collect it from?
Students: Anybody
Teacher: if you want to use your own, go out. How much are they selling blade?
Students: Ten naira
Teacher: even how much are they selling clipper? How much are they selling it? Go and buy your (waits for students to complete the sentence)
Students: own
Teacher: especially boys. When they are going to the barbing saloon. Tell them to buy their clipper and when you go there, tell the barber that he should use your
Students: own
Teacher: clipper for you. So that you will be sure that you have protected yourself. You have money to buy the handset but you don't have the money to buy a clipper? And that thing that you are joking with or playing with can destroy your own life
Students: yes
…
Teacher: when I was in Nasarawa state, a friend of mine contacted HIV/Aids through the clipper. Majority of the people that it happens to its not through sex only. But it's because they have not been careful. You need to be careful. Do you understand?
Students: yes
Teacher: because that boy is no more alive now. So that's why we said this is an emergency issue

Field notes, Jade

The civic education teachers also shared beliefs that giving illustrations of personal or close experiences would enable the students to grasp the reality of what they were taught in the classroom. The civic education teacher in Lavender described her thoughts about sharing from personal experiences during a lesson, in the following comment:

> I gave a personal example as a mother about self-medication and about a previous experience that I had. That was not supposed to be part of the lesson. But I just felt like using a close example. I think that what I did may make students feel that they have a live example of someone that has done what we were talking about, and feel that something like that can happen to them as well. So, they can learn from it. LScvt

Another feature of the observed civic education lessons was that the teachers required the right answers from their students. They did this by asking questions to acquire right answers from their students. Wrong answers and/or incomplete answers were rebuffed in favour of the predetermined right answer. This point was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Cobalt:

> Teacher: who can mention or give me examples of the daily activities of the government? Anybody? (Repeats the question)
> Student I: (stands to answer) providing legal advice
> Teacher: Yes, but what is it for? For the provision of what?
> Student I: amenities
> Teacher: (cuts in) maybe amenities for the citizens. Yes, of the country.
> Teacher: anybody else, I am asking you to mention the daily activities of the government?
> Student II: (mumbles something)
> Teacher: I have already mentioned that, there is also what? Provision of E-du-ca (waits for students to complete)
> Students: Education
>
> Field notes, Cobalt

The teachers also emphasised right answers through their comments on the responses of their students to different questions. All three teachers provided further explanations on what was considered to be the right response to a question. This point was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Jade:

> Teacher: can you tell me the reason why students are joining cults?
> Students: sexual urge
> Teacher: sexual urge, can you explain that?
> Male student: some students want to engage in sexual activity with others. They believe that when they join cults, they will now be famous or have the power to have intercourse

> Teacher: Yes, some people are joining the cult in order to satisfy their sexual ability. What I mean by sexual ability is that they believe that when they join cults if they want to have sex with any girl they will get her, because they have group of friends

Field notes, Jade

The civic education lessons observed in Lavender and Jade also featured the use of teaching aids. In Lavender, the civic education teacher pointed to pictures in a textbook to show examples of abused drugs, during her lesson. In Jade, the civic education teacher used a poster that illustrated the causes of HIV/Aids. However, students from both schools said that the use of those teaching aids in their civic education lessons were unusual and possibly motivated by the presence of the researcher. The use of teaching aids was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Lavender:

> (Discussing similarities between the observed lesson and previous lessons)
> F1: she is normally like this when teaching but
> M2: she raised up her textbook
> M1: she brought a textbook for class
> F1: she has been bringing textbooks to class before now
> F1: it's just that she doesn't
> M1: use it
> F2: she doesn't go to the extent of using it to explain
> F1: and she has explained so well.
> F2: she's not always such as this, she doesn't use the textbook to explain. She doesn't really do that

Science students, Lavender

5.2.3 SCOPE OF CLASS ACTIVITIES

The observed civic education lessons across the three schools included similar predominant activities, namely the recurrent use of recitations and question-and-answer sessions. However, the observed civic education lessons in each school also included different range of activities and different rates of occurrence. This deduction was based on lesson observations and the accounts of civic education teachers and student groups in each school about usual classroom practice. The claims that the teachers made about usual classroom practice, which were not recorded during lesson observations were validated through their students' accounts. The civic education lessons in Jade included the use of a wider range of learning activities than what was available in Lavender and

Cobalt. Class activities were also held more frequently during civic education lessons in Jade than in Lavender and Cobalt. For instance, observed civic education lessons in Jade included the use of problem-solving questions and whole-class discussions, alongside recitations and question-and-answer sessions. These activities were illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Jade:

> 9:15 the teacher asks a problem-solving question based on current events in Nigeria
> 9:16 a number of students respond together. The teacher tells the students to speak one at a time
> 9:17 the whole class starts to discuss the question. The teacher allows different students to discuss different opinions on the question
> 9:18 the teacher steps into the discussion and speaks on behalf of the students that seem to have given the desired answer
> 9:19 the teacher allows students to make further responses. Then he returns to explaining the subject content
>
> Field notes, Jade

The interviewed teacher in Jade also said that other class activities such as drama, role play, group activities, student presentations, individual assignments and skill learning had happened before in his civic education lessons. This account was confirmed by his students. One of those learning activities was described by the civic education teacher in Jade in the following comment:

> JScvt: In the civic syllabus or scheme of work, we are asked to involve the students in communal work … And we did the communal work here and when you go towards the toilet you can see that we did a renovation of the toilet facilities. The syllabus also said the student should be involve in one skill or that we should teach a student a skill. So, we taught them how to produce chalk.

The civic education lessons in Lavender included less activities than available in Jade but more than in Cobalt. For instance, the observed civic education lessons in Lavender only included the teacher's hand out of class assignments alongside recitations and question-and-answer sessions. The interviewed teacher in lavender also said that other class activities such as student presentations, group and individual projects, drama, and whole-class discussions had happened before in her civic education lessons. The civic education teacher in Lavender described some of those class activities in the following comment:

> LScvt: Sometimes, or once in a week, we have class presentations. I divide the students into groups, and I select the group leader to come out and do the presentations on behalf of the group. Then I

ask them questions about the presentation and they give me answers. At the end of the day, I make conclusions on what they have presented and I award them marks based on it…
When I taught topics around leadership, I had to bring in a leader to the class, probably the principal or vice principal and a teacher, who I decided to use as an example of a leader. So, I brought some of my colleagues from the social science department, who teach social studies or civics, history or government and used them as examples of role models or leader…I have given individual assignments in the past where the students were instructed to present about international organizations. It was an individual project for each person and they did it.

The student groups in Lavender said that some of the activities described by the civic education teacher had happened before in their civic education lessons. However, the students said that recitations and question-and-answer sessions were the most frequent activities in their civic education lessons. The students said that the other activities described had occurred less frequently than suggested by their civic education teacher. The students' views indicated that class activities in civic education lessons occurred but less frequently compared to the civic education lessons in Jade. This point was illustrated in the following excerpt:

Researcher: Can you talk about when you are allowed to work on your own during a civic class?
F2: like drama?
…
F3: I think the only time we work alone is during projects and tests, personal projects and tests. Then, that work together is just during drama and it's only once for the past presentation. It's only once that we've done that.
F1: yes, it could be different for other classes like the arts class
F3: and we are in science class, so just once. During our normal class, she will just come, explain and ask questions
M1: it's just once in a while actually.

Science students, Lavender

The civic education lessons in Cobalt had the least activities compared to Lavender and Jade. The observed civic education lessons only included the recurrent use of recitations and question-and-answer sessions. During data collection, the teacher in Cobalt claimed that other activities such as whole-class discussions and class assignments had happened before in her civic education lessons. However, her students disputed this claim. The students said that recitations and question-and-answer sessions were the only activities that they had experienced in their civic education lessons. They maintained that class assignments and class discussions had not happened before in their civic education

lessons. This point was illustrated by the science students group in Cobalt in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing available class activities)
> F1: she hasn't given us assignment
> F2: yes, she just comes to class and explains the topic
> F1: and she writes our lesson notes
> F3: she will explain the topic and
> M3: she will ask us if we have questions
> …
> F1: we don't have discussions or anything like that
> M1: I've never seen it. (Laughs)

Science students, Cobalt

The observed civic education lessons and comparison of teacher and students' views indicated that the range of class activities and rate of occurrence was less in Cobalt compared to Jade and Lavender.

5.2.4 TEACHER AND STUDENT ACTIONS

Lesson observations revealed similarities between the actions of the civic education teachers during observed lessons across the three schools. The teachers explained the topics and asked most of the questions. They dominated the conversations in the classrooms by asking questions and responding to the students' responses to those questions. The civic education teachers also called out the names of some students to respond to their questions. This happened more frequently in Cobalt, than in other schools. This point was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Cobalt:

> Teacher: who can explain to me what public service in Nigeria is, what is the meaning of public service?
> Student I: public service is the office of the government responsible for all daily activities
> Teacher: is there any other person that can explain to me what public service in Nigeria is? Any other person? (Calls the name of a student)
> Named student: it is the institute of the government responsible for daily activities, policy and implementation
> Teacher: Yes, thank you

Field notes, Cobalt

The progression of each lesson was decided by the teachers. The teachers also controlled their classrooms by asking for silence and making frequent threats of punishment. The teachers' approach to class control was illustrated in the field notes of civic education lessons observed in Lavender and Jade:

> LScvt: in the last class, we talked about the definition of a drug and typologies of drug. Hello, Hello, please keep quiet. If not, I will send you out. (Continues teaching)
> JScvt: Do you have any questions, you can ask your question in English, Yoruba or Hausa (Students shouting over one another in response). It's okay, it's okay. I will cane you now. If you don't stop I will cane you.

Field notes, Lavender & Jade

The reactions of the students within the observed civic education lessons across the three schools were also similar. The students remained silent and attentive during their teachers' explanations, but also responded frequently to questions and recitations. Students described these reactions as fulfilling their teachers' expectations. Students in all three schools said that they were expected to listen to their teachers' explanations, write notes and respond to the teachers' questions during the lessons. The students' views about their actions during a lesson was illustrated in the following excerpt:

> F1: I think because it is civic class, the teacher probably expects us to ask so many questions, but because civics is quite straightforward I will not expect myself to start asking various questions or maybe say that I read something from somewhere that is related to the topic. It is just easier to pay attention to what she is saying….
> M1: even if they give us more time to talk, there is nothing to talk about because when she is explaining she just says it all

Science students, Lavender

Students' contribution to the observed civic education lessons included participating in recitations and responding to the teachers' questions. The students in Lavender and Jade also contributed to their learning by participating in class activities initiated by their civic education teachers. In Jade particularly, students contributed to whole-class discussions that ensued from the teacher's problem-solving questions. This point was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Jade:

> 9:15 the teacher asks a problem-solving question based on current events in Nigeria
> 9:16 a number of students respond together. The teacher tells the students to speak one at a time

9:17 the whole class starts to discuss the question. The teacher allows different students to discuss different opinions on the question
9:18 the teacher steps into the discussion and speaks on behalf of the students that seem to have given the desired answer
9:19 the teacher allows students to make further responses. Then he returns to explaining the subject content

Field notes, Jade

Sometimes, particularly within the observed civic educations lessons in Cobalt, students stopped responding to the teacher's prompt to recitations and questions. This students' reaction was illustrated in the field notes of a civic education lesson observed in Cobalt:

Teacher: among the shortcomings we have bribery and
Students: corruption
Teacher: we have bribery and corruption, we also have tribalism
…
Teacher: now when we talk about bribery and corruption, under public service in Nigeria, how can, who can explain to me how bribery and corruption can be one of the main shortcomings of public service in Nigeria?
(Students remain silent)
Teacher: who can explain that (repeats the question) what do you understand by bribery and corruption? When we talk about public service in Nigeria, there is no sector in Nigeria without experiencing bribery and?
(Students remain silent)
Teacher: corruption in everywhere. And it is one of the major problem facing public service in?
(Students remain silent)
Teacher: Nigeria. There is no sector, they can never do anything without collecting money or what?
(Students remain silent)
Teacher: or equivalent of money.

Field notes, Cobalt

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Based on the local translations of SCI within civic education lessons, the research findings related to RQII would suggest that: (I) some aspects of SCI were fulfilled within civic education lessons in Jade through the availability of a broader range of class activities and frequent occurrences of those activities, (II) a few aspects of SCI were fulfilled within civic education lessons in Lavender through the availability of some class activities and occasional occurrence of those activities, and (III) no aspects of SCI were fulfilled within civic education lessons in Cobalt due to the least availability of class activities and hardly

any occurrence of those activities. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, the local translation of SCI in the civic education syllabus recommended the use of drama, demonstration, learning aids, discussion, question-and-answer sessions, case studies, observations, debates, and listening to resource persons during civic education lessons. Records of classroom practice during the observed civic education lessons indicated that many of these instructions were fulfilled in Jade, a few were fulfilled in Lavender, and none in Cobalt.

This indicates that the local translations of SCI were only fulfilled to a considerable extent in Jade, which is the least resourced out of the three schools. This observation interestingly contradicts previous arguments in the local literature that it is more difficult to achieve engaging classroom practices within low-resourced schools. Based on the arguments in the local literature, Lavender had the best classroom and learning conditions and should have recorded the widest range of class activities and highest occurrence among the three schools. However, the research findings related to RQII did not match these expectations. The widest range of class activities and the highest occurrence of those activities were found in Jade, which had the poorest classroom and learning conditions. So far, the research findings related to RQII have been used to suggest that only one of the three schools matched the local translations of SCI. As mentioned earlier, local translations of SCI required following a list of instructions for student activities in the civic education syllabus. Such local translations however have been shown to be oversimplified translations of SCI. This is an underlying argument to this research, which was discussed earlier in chapter 2 and adapted to research design, data collection and analysis. As mentioned earlier in chapter 2, SCI involves more than the use of class activities in a classroom. The following account discusses the four aspects of classroom practices observed within the civic educations lessons to highlight that the adequate translation of SCI was not implemented within the three schools.

The research findings obtained in response to RQII indicated that **the structure of the observed** civic education lessons within the three schools resonated with teacher-centred rather than student-centred classrooms. The lesson periods in all three schools followed a similar pattern of introducing the lesson with question-and-answer recaps of a previous

lesson. The main part of the lessons also involved the teacher's explanation of subject content, and the use of few or some class activities. The concluding part of the lessons involved the teacher's summary of the lesson and a process of asking the students whether or not they had any questions or comments. The described structure reflected a routine schedule for class activities. This routine schedule contradicts a varied style of classroom practice that is associated with learner/student-centred classrooms.

T**he features of the observed** civic education lessons in the three schools also reflected teacher-centred instruction. The observed civic education lessons in all three schools featured teacher's recurring explanations, recitations, question-and-answer sessions initiated by the teacher, teacher's use of examples, and right-answerism[15]. International literature has identified such features as components of teacher-centred rather than learner-centred classrooms. For instance, teachers' explanations or lectures, and teacher-led activities are measures that sustain the teacher's control over the knowledge-acquisition process (Tabulawa, 1998). Teacher's use of examples also reinforced their stance as the more experienced and capable advice-giver in the classroom, while emphasis on right answers reinforced the view that the teacher is the expert and placed the teacher in a dominant position during classroom interaction (Tabulawa, 1998). Again, these features are in conflict with the constructivist principles underlying SCI. Student-centred classrooms are modelled on beliefs that teachers and students should be equally positioned as co-creators of knowledge in the classroom (Taylor, 1990).

The **scope of class activities** within civic education lessons in all three schools were also determined and initiated by the teachers. Again, teacher-led activities are considered as features of a teacher-centred rather than learner/student-centred classroom. This is because teacher-led activities sustain the teacher's control over the knowledge-acquisition process (Tabulawa, 1998). T**he actions of teachers and students** in the observed civic education lessons across the three schools also reflected a teacher-dominated classroom. The teachers were positioned as the as the giver of knowledge in

[15] Phrase borrowed from Tabulawa (1998) – where teachers anticipate and acknowledge the right answers to the questions that they ask their students

their civic education lessons. They were also in control of the knowledge acquisition process and the pace of learning. They maintained classroom control through reactions to threats of punishment and requests for silence during the lesson. The students on the other hand, were positioned as recipients of their teachers' knowledge and limited contributors to their lessons. The students' contributions were also limited because they were dependent on their teachers' prompts such as teachers' questions, recitations and activities initiated by their teachers. These actions resonate with teacher-centred rather than learner-centred classrooms.

Overall, these research findings indicate that none of the observed civic education lessons fulfilled the requirements of an internationally acceptable definition of SCI. The research findings also corroborate previous research findings that teacher-dominated practice is often retained in the classrooms of developing countries after LCE reform.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The research findings related to RQI and RQII were presented in this chapter. A pen portrait was provided to introduce and describe the physical learning environment and the general educational approach of the researched schools. The research findings presented here highlighted the similarities between the context realities and the contextual factors that shape SCI implementation across the three schools. These research findings suggested that there were more barriers to SCI implementation in the selected public secondary schools than in the selected private secondary school. However, these research findings were also used to argue that none of the three schools were adequately equipped or motivated for SCI implementation. The research findings presented in this chapter suggested that the requirements of the local translations of SCI were fulfilled to a considerable extent in only one out of the three schools. However, these research findings were also used to argue that adequate translations of SCI did not manifest in the observed classroom practices. Particularly because the overall features of the observed classroom practices across the three schools resonated with teacher-centred instruction rather than learner/student-centred instruction. The observation that the state of classroom and

learning conditions in Jade did not prevent engaging classroom practices suggested that there could be other factors underlying classroom practice. This theory is substantiated with the research findings (presented in the next chapter) that the beliefs and preferences of teachers and students contributed to classroom practice across the three schools. Those research findings are presented in the next chapter. The links between cultural values and LCE reform will also be highlighted through the research findings presented in the next chapter.

Chapter VI: The perspectives of secondary school teachers and students on SCI implementation and classroom practice during civic education lessons

INTRODUCTION

The previous findings chapter focused on the presentation and discussion of: (a) evidence related to RQI – specifically, the contextual or school-related factors that limit SCI implementation within two public and one private secondary school in Nigeria, and (b) evidence related to RQII – specifically, the reality of classroom practice within six civic education lessons and how such observations indicate that only one of the three schools fulfilled the local translations of SCI to a considerable extent. At the same time, the evidence related to RQII was used to argue that the adequate translation of SCI was not fulfilled in any of the three schools. This chapter concludes the presentation of the research findings by moving on to discuss the views of three civic education teachers and their students on: (I) specified features of SCI, which were suggested to them by the researcher during data collection and (II) the reality of classroom practice in their civic education lessons. These views are presented in order to highlight the influence of stakeholders' beliefs and preferences on LCE reform, especially those that are informed by their cultural values.

This chapter is divided into three sections, the first section addresses RQIII through a presentation and discussion of teachers' views on classroom practice during their civic education lessons and on five basic features of SCI. The second section addresses RQIV through a presentation and discussion of students' views on classroom practice during their civic education lessons, and on the same basic features of SCI. It is important to note here that there is some overlap between some of the research findings related to RQII and RQIII. This is because some of the teachers' views presented in this chapter, are about the classroom practices observed in their civic education lessons. In other words, it was necessary to include the teachers' views on the observed classroom practices, which were described earlier in chapter 5 and similarly necessary to make comparisons between what was observed in the classrooms and the teachers' views that are presented in this chapter. Comparisons between the observed classroom practices described in Chapter 5 and the

teachers' and students' views reported in this chapter are therefore highlighted in the accounts presented within these first two sections.

Further comparisons between the teachers' and the students' views on classroom practice and SCI implementation are highlighted within the account presented in the final section of this chapter. In other words, the final section of this chapter brings together the views obtained from the civic education teachers and their students on classroom practice during their civic education lessons and on the five basic features of SCI, in order to discuss the similarities and differences between both accounts. Overall, evidence related to RQIII and RQIV are presented in this chapter to show that the perspectives of stakeholders contributed to the context realities of SCI implementation within the three schools.

6.1 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE AND SCI IMPLEMENTATION

RQIII – What are the perspectives of selected civic education teachers on classroom practices during their civic education lessons and SCI implementation?

The dataset of teachers' interviews and debrief sessions[16] was qualitatively analysed for RQIII. The research findings related to RQIII are presented in the first part of this section. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 4, the researcher drafted a list of seven basic features of SCI from the definitions and principles of SCI presented within key texts about LCE in the international literature. See Appendix VII for a summary table of the researcher's list of basic features of SCI. The researcher presented this list to the research participants because they showed no awareness and little grasp of SCI as a concept during data collection. The list was also used to side-step the oversimplified local translations of SCI and acquire participants' views on more adequate translations of SCI. The responses of the civic education teachers and their students to the list of seven basic features of SCI were divided into two categories during data analysis – positive views of SCI and unenthusiastic views of SCI. The two categories are formed of views related to five themes. Those five

[16] As mentioned earlier, debrief sessions are defined in this thesis, as short interviews with the teacher or short discussions with the students after each observed lesson

themes are a more condensed list of basic features of SCI, which was derived from the dataset of the teacher interviews and the student focus groups. In other words, this abridged version of the basic features of SCI was derived from raw data although the data itself was formed in response to the researcher's list of seven basic features of SCI. The five themes are:

a. The use of class activities
b. The opportunity for dialogue and interaction during lessons
c. The opportunity for students to share different opinions on subject content
d. The idea that students should be responsible for their own learning in the classroom
e. The notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students

Therefore, this first part of section 6.1 includes an account of the civic education teachers' views that are related to the basic features of SCI or SCI implementation. The second part of section 6.1 includes an account of the civic education teachers' views on classroom practice during their civic education lessons.

6.1.1A POSITIVE VIEWS OF SCI

6.1.1.1 THE USE OF CLASS ACTIVITIES

The three civic education teachers responded positively to the use of class activities during classroom learning as a feature of SCI. They had shared positive views about the use of class activities earlier on in their interviews, before they were asked for their thoughts on the basic features of SCI. The three teachers said that they encourage the use of class activities in their civic education lessons even though there was little evidence of their claims during the lesson observations, except in Jade. Still, all three teachers responded positively to the use of class activities such as group activities, problem solving activities, role-plays, quiz and debates and group discussions. They shared similar views that this feature of SCI was consistent with the usual classroom practice in their civic education lessons. They did this by describing past experiences of using class activities in their civic

education lessons. The teachers described their experiences of using group activities and discussions in their previous civic education lessons in the following comments:

> LScvt: sometimes or once in a week, we have class presentations, and I divide the students into groups. I select the group leader to come out and do the presentations then we (the teacher and other students) ask them questions and they give us answers. At the end of the day I do a group summary or conclusion for what they have presented and I award them marks based on it… Through group discussion and assignments students can learn from one another.
> CScvt: Group discussions are highly encouraged, that students between themselves should discuss their views about any topic after the lesson… through group discussions they will be able to share knowledge and get new ideas from each other so I encourage group discussions.
> JScvt: I use the group method but not often… I will divide the class into four groups and each group will have a representative. They will come out and tell the class what they will present on. This includes an issue discussed in their groups. They will present it to the whole class so and the other students will ask them some questions. During that group discussion, the members of that group will learn from one another. When the group leader is presenting what their findings to the whole class and the other students are asking him questions, I will just sit down and watch them. At the end of the day I will correct their responses where there is need for it.

Again, the lesson observations and the students' views did not validate the teachers' claims about using class activities frequently in their civic education lessons, except in Jade. However, this did not eliminate the fact that the three teachers held positive thoughts about the use of class activities during classroom learning. As illustrated in the underlined phrases above, the teachers' descriptions of previous learning experiences reflected positive notions about the use of class activities. The three teachers maintained that the use of class activities promoted student engagement in their lessons; and generated better understanding of subject content and good academic performance for their students. The teachers' views on using class of activities during their civic education lessons were illustrated in the following comments:

> LScvt: teaching is not a one-way approach, it involves the teacher and the students so if I teach all the time, sometimes it becomes boring and the students will feel that they are just there to listen and that they are not part of the class. So, if I engage them in things they feel like it's not just the teacher and its all of us doing the work, they have a sense of belonging and they tend to participate more.
> CScvt: if someone wants these students to really get what someone is really teaching them, you cannot use a single approach. We have different methodologies or approaches with which we can teach these students, a particular approach might be boring so we might decide to change systematically to another approach. For them to know the knowledge you want to impart to them.
> JScvt: (referring to his historical, discussion and drama approach) these three methods are effective and using them is really assisting me… on the issue of the poverty I set a question towards the end of the last term and a student came to me that he did that question based on the play that they acted in the class. That he didn't read the topic in his lesson notes, instead he just recollected that play and he answered the question. When I looked at the student's grades, he performed well…

6.1.1.2 The Use of Dialogue and Interaction

The civic education teachers also held positive views about the use of dialogue and interaction in classroom learning. They responded positively to the idea that the use of dialogue and interaction is a feature of SCI, and suggested that this feature was consistent with the usual classroom practice in their civic education lessons. They did this by describing past experiences of allowing interaction during their civic education lessons. The teachers' described opportunities for interaction during their previous civic education lessons in the following comments:

> LScvt: sometimes they are allowed to have a talk on one of the topics in the civics syllabus, I can just call on anyone to tell us about a topic. So, they have several avenues of contributing, including assignments, expressing their views, opinions and suggestions in class
> CScvt: I use the discussion method because by the time I teach them, I will carry them along, I will make sure they contribute, we will discuss together, I will assess them and try to test their knowledge and by the time I ask them questions, I carry them along.
> JScvt: in maths when they say two plus two is four there is no way again. but in civics no, it's based on your opinion if I say no another person can say yes so there is need for me to let the students express their mind and express their feelings… when you throw a question to the student that's what I mean by the discussion class

The research findings presented in Chapter 5 indicated that recitations and question-and-answer sessions were the most prevalent forms of classroom interaction in the civic education lessons, except in Jade. This is in contrast to the views shared by the civic education teachers in Lavender and Cobalt. Nevertheless, this did not eliminate the fact that the three teachers held positive thoughts about the use of dialogue and interaction during classroom learning. The three teachers said that opportunities for interaction, contributed positively to learning in their civic education lessons. They maintained that classroom interactions allowed them to grasp the viewpoints of their students on subject content, promoted student engagement during their lessons, and encouraged mutual learning between the students and the teacher. The teachers' views on the use of interaction during their civic education lessons were illustrated in the following comments:

> LScvt: I used lecture and discussion so that they could also express their own views … if I don't listen to the students there is no way I can really flow with them. I can get feedback when I listen, and try to know their mind-sets, and where to pick up or what angle to teach them from. The students might feel like they don't know anything if I don't hear from them.
> JScvt: when you throw a question to the student that's what I mean by the discussion class … the student may give you another point that is different from your own as a teacher when you sit down

and you realise that point also is supposed to be there you add it to it that's the essence of the discussion class. So sometimes the teacher also learns from the students while the student is learning from the teacher.

6.1.1.3 Opportunities to Share Different Opinions on subject Content

The views of the civic education teachers about the use of dialogue and interaction, overlapped with their thoughts about opportunities for students to share different opinions on subject content. They also responded positively to the idea that SCI would allow students to be critical of subject content, and enable them to be able to negotiate knowledge with their teachers. The civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade in particular said that such practice was consistent with their usual teaching experiences. They did this by sharing past experiences of students' disputing and/or correcting the teachers' standpoint during their civic education lessons. The experiences of the civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade were described in the following comments:

LScvt: we give them room to ask questions about the information we give them. We try to listen to them but we also try to limit so as to curb their excesses … when you know your students that this particular class are not the excessive type you give them room to say all they will want to say. And you go ahead and think about it and you make corrections.
JScvt: in a previous class we were discussing on HIV/AIDs and I said in the olden days when you got married, as a woman and your husband met as a virgin, he will send masses of box to your family. But the students reacted they said that cannot happen nowadays. I allowed the student to ask question and allowed them to express their opinion.

The teachers' claims about existing opportunities for students to share different opinions during classroom learning in Jade and Lavender were validated through lesson observations and their students' comments. As an example, the students were able to present different opinions on subject content during the observed civic education lessons in Jade.

6.1.1.4 The Idea that Students should be Responsible for Their Own Learning

The three civic education teachers responded unenthusiastically to the idea that students should contribute to decisions on their own classroom learning. They shared similar views that this feature of SCI would be unworkable in their classrooms due to different reasons. The common reasons that they identified include: (a) obligations to complete the subject syllabus, and (b) the fact that subject content is examination-driven. The teachers described limits to the idea that students should be responsible for their learning in the following comments:

> LScvt: I have a scheme of work to finish teaching before the end of the term. If I tell the students that we have seven topics to learn and they complain about any of the topics, I can tell them that I have to teach these topics because that is what the curriculum says and the school will hold me responsible if I don't teach it… the students will be also assessed at the end of the term. So even the Nigerian education system does not allow me to tell them to pick what they want to learn. This is because the students are not going to be assessed based on their choices but based on what the syllabus told me to teach them.
> CScvt: once we start the beginning of term, the scheme of work is already there for the students to know what they want to learn. The first thing teachers have to do before they write their lesson notes… they make sure that they write all the topics for the students so that they will be able to know what we are expected to teach them for that term or academic session.

The civic education teachers in Jade and Lavender also shared similar views that this feature of SCI can be unworkable due to students' reactions. They said that their students would have undesirable reactions to the idea that they can make decisions about learning. Such reactions include reduced motivation to learn and disorganised atmosphere in the classroom if the students want different things. The civic education teachers in Jade and Lavender described potential students' reactions to this feature of SCI in the following comments:

> LScvt: In Nigerian schools, they probably do not give room for students to say that they don't like a topic, and don't want to do it or that a particular topic is not useful. This is because some students simply don't want to relate with the topic…from your lesson observations, you should see that some students are ready to learn, while some need our help to push them to learn. So, if I hand over their learning into their hands, they might not learn at the end of the day. Also, those students that are ready to learn, might become influenced not to learn.
> JScvt: it is going to cause a lot of problem in the class. There was a time that I taught the third-year students a lesson in mathematics. I asked them, which topic do you want me to teach you? Some chose 'bearing' another group said 'graphs', another said 'latitude and longitude'. There will be

differences of opinion and by the time that we are able to conclude on that, at least 10 or 15 minutes would have gone out of 35 or 40 minutes that we have for the lesson, so it is not feasible.

The sceptical reactions of the three civic education teachers to this feature of SCI also reflected beliefs that it contradicts the traditional culture and system of education in Nigeria. The three teachers shared similar views that a system of hierarchy within the community culture requires that the adults should make decisions about learning, while the young ones comply with their instructions. The adults in this case are the teachers, and the young ones are their students. The civic education teachers shared their views about the relationship between students' responsibility in learning and the hierarchical school culture in the following comments:

LScvt: I've also gone through the Nigerian system of education and in Nigeria, and they believe that adults know all and they know what is best for you. That is Nigerian mentality. Personally, I doubt if allowing students to take responsibility for learning is relevant in the Nigerian context.
CScvt: In this country, I believe they don't carry the teachers along in planning the curriculum, talk less of the students … Most teacher and students do not have knowledge about the process of compiling the curriculum. The decisions are made from the ministry of education… so if the teachers are not even carried along, I don't think students can contribute to the process
JScvt: it is the work of the teacher, the teachers are going to decide on what we want to do and whenever we need the students' assistance that is, if they need to come with something or a material to the class, we are going to instruct them. That's the system that we use in Nigeria. The student has no right to ask the authority or teachers that this is the topic that we want to do.

PLEASE NOTE

The findings of this research are presented under the next theme with the awareness that mutual respect might be interpreted differently across different contexts. For instance, the civic education teachers interviewed for this study indicated that they had their own interpretations of mutual respect as a term. More so, their reactions to the notion of mutual respect as a feature of SCI were based on their interpretations of the term. The following account includes both the interpretations of the civic education teachers and their reactions to the notion of mutual respect based on those interpretations. Both views are included in the following account in order to present a balanced and full picture of the civic education teachers' reactions. The two interpretations of mutual respect deduced from data are: equal respect and reciprocated respect. The civic education teachers shared interpretations of mutual respect as equal respect when it implies a loss of hierarchical relations between teachers and their students. They also shared interpretations of mutual respect as reciprocated respect when it does not imply the loss of hierarchical relations

between teachers and their students. The following account highlights indications within the views of the civic education teachers, of positive reactions to one interpretation of mutual respect, and unenthusiastic reactions to the other interpretation of the same term.

6.1.1.5 The Notion of Mutual Respect between Teachers and Students

The three civic education teachers responded unenthusiastically to the notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students. Initially during their interviews, teachers' responses reflected beliefs that respect can be reciprocated between teachers and students. Such beliefs were reflected through the teachers' statements that they respond in kind to the respect given to them by their students. In this way, the views shared by the civic education teachers highlighted one interpretation of mutual respect as reciprocated respect between teachers and students. The civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade described the process of reciprocating respect to their students in the following comments:

> LScvt: Yeah. There is respect between me and my students. Personally, it's my own watchword as a person and as their teacher that you respect me and I respect you ... Mutual respect, I think it brings us closer to one another, and I think there is a relation between someone that is teaching you and what you are going to get as a student. If I don't like the teacher I might not know what the teacher is saying. So, if I don't respect the students or have a good relationship with them, then they might not know what I'm teaching them.
> JScvt: there is respect between me and my students, they always respect me… as a teacher if you want to be respected by your students you need to be disciplined… they respect me because they know I'm disciplined and they know I use to cane them … there is room for a teacher to respect the students … They are human beings, so we give them a little responsibility to do. By the time that we give them a little responsibility, the student will feel happy and it seems like you recognise them.

However, subsequent reactions from the civic education teachers reflected beliefs that mutual respect should not be pursued between teachers and their students. Such beliefs were reflected in suggestions that this feature of SCI would generate negative reactions from the students. The three teachers said that there was a high tendency for students to react with overfamiliarity towards the teachers that respect them. They identified this undesirable and highly likely outcome as a reason to think twice about the notion of mutual respect. The teachers' views about likely outcomes of mutual respect were illustrated in the following comments:

> LScvt: Yeah. There is respect between me and my students … But the thing is that, when you respect them too much it feels as if you guys are now at par. And they tend to lose it so you don't give them too much room to.
> CScvt: We are their teachers, there can be a kind of familiarity, and we don't have to be too harsh on them but there must be respect between the teachers and students because too much familiarity is bad. But we do encourage them to have respect for the teachers and they do.
> JScvt: as far as I am concerned, there is room for a teacher to respect the students not by calling him brother or aunty, no. They are human beings so we give them a little responsibility to do. By the time that you give them a little responsibility the student will feel happy …

In the underlined phrases above, the views shared by the three civic education teachers reflected a second interpretation of mutual respect as equal respect between teachers and students. They interpreted equal respect between teachers and students as reduced control of, and deference to students in the learning environment. The sceptical reactions of the three teachers to the pursuit of equal respect between teachers and students were supported with suggestions that it contradicts their cultural values. The three teachers shared similar views that within the community culture, respect for the adult-teacher is the priority compared to the young-student. The views of the civic education teachers about the expectations for student-teacher relationships in the wider community were illustrated in the following comments:

> LScvt: although you have to respect students as a human being that has dignity and self-respect or self-pride, but the thing about African setting is that they have the mind-set that students ought to respect adults, not that adults should respect them… If I give too much respect to my students and they want to use that as an opportunity to misbehave, I stop it immediately, and I tell them that I am an adult and we are in Africa, so you have to respect me.
> CScvt: We practice this because it is part of what we teach them in the school to have respect for the elderly ones …
> JScvt: we usually respect our students but not to the extent of calling them brother or sister. Besides in our culture the older person respects the young one so that the young one will be able to respect the older one …

Overall, the three civic education teachers had positive reactions to three features of SCI and unenthusiastic reactions to the remaining two features. On one hand, they shared positive reactions to the use of class activities, dialogue and interaction and opportunities for students to negotiate knowledge with their teachers. Through claims that they encourage these three features during classroom practice, the teachers suggested that some manifestation of SCI can be detected during their civic education lessons. Their views also reflected beliefs that such features were acceptable because they are feasible,

desirable and useful for learning in their civic education lessons. The three teachers presented a positive outlook about some features of SCI in the following comments:

> LScvt: I think that actually learning should be child-centred. I think both teacher-centred and child-centred learning, already exists in our school… I think it is the best if we use the student-centred approach, it will enable teachers to pull together resources and focus on the student. This will really help the student to become a better person and learn better.
> CScvt: When we talk about student-centred practice, it means that teaching is mainly focused on the students. This is okay and there is nothing bad about it. The students are at school to learn and there is no way a teacher will impart knowledge to the students without gaining from the experience.
> JScvt: as far as I'm concerned in my own class especially, there is no way that you will be using discussion method, dramatic-al method, and group method that a teacher will not be able to gain one or two things from the students.

On the other hand, the three teachers shared unenthusiastic reactions to the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning, and the interpretation of mutual respect as equal respect between teachers and their students. They suggested that such features were not absolutely necessary for learning during their civic education lessons. The civic education teachers in Jade and Lavender presented a sceptical outlook on the other two features of SCI in the following comments:

> LScvt: mutual respect in my perspective can work to an extent in our classrooms. It is relevant but not absolutely relevant … it's about value system are we ready to change our value system, that adults should be respected and students should be at the receiving end … even teachers know that we ought to respect students, but sometimes we say I'm your teacher, I demand respect from you because I'm an adult. So, if the government are saying that we should implement student-centred practice, are they ready to change our value system that adults are meant to be respected and not both ways. If they are able to probably change our values system, change the African-ness in us. Probably it will work, but if they won't change it then some of these features probably should be deleted from the student-centred practice and coin out a Nigerian student-centred learning.
> JScvt: I don't know what is operating in developed countries, I've not been there but Nigeria as a whole the student has no right to ask the teachers for the topic that they want to do. Since we have the scheme of work, the teacher should be following the scheme of work whether the students understand it or not. It is only when we are doing the revision that the students can ask Oga[17], this thing is not clear let us revise this topic. But the students have no right to ask or to dictate for the teachers on the topic he wants the teachers to teach them.

[17] Honorific term for teacher

The following table includes a summary of the views shared by three civic education teachers on five basic features of SCI:

TEACHERS' VIEWS ABOUT SCI	LSCVT	CSCVT	JSCVT
CLASS ACTIVITIES	ENCOURAGED AND USED LITTLE EVIDENCE FOR CLAIM IN OBSERVATIONS & STUDENTS COMMENTS	ENCOURAGED AND USED NO EVIDENCE FOR CLAIM IN OBSERVATIONS & STUDENTS COMMENTS	ENCOURAGED AND USED CLAIM SUPPORTED IN OBSERVATIONS & STUDENTS COMMENTS
	POSITIVE VIEWS – CLASS ACTIVITIES ARE BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING	POSITIVE VIEWS – CLASS ACTIVITIES ARE BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING	POSITIVE VIEWS – CLASS ACTIVITIES ARE BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING
DIALOGUE & INTERACTION	ENCOURAGED AND USED LITTLE EVIDENCE FOR OTHER FORMS OF INTERACTION IN OBSERVATIONS & STUDENTS COMMENTS AVAILABLE INTERACTION – RECITATIONS AND Q&A ONLY	ENCOURAGED AND USED NO EVIDENCE FOR OTHER FORMS OF INTERACTION IN OBSERVATIONS & STUDENTS COMMENTS AVAILABLE INTERACTION – RECITATIONS AND Q&A ONLY	ENCOURAGED AND USED CLAIMS ABOUT OTHER FORMS OF INTERACTION SUPPORTED IN OBSERVATIONS & STUDENTS COMMENTS AVAILABLE INTERACTION – RECITATIONS, Q&A AND WHOLE-CLASS DISCUSSION
	POSITIVE VIEWS – CLASS INTERACTION IS BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING	POSITIVE VIEWS – CLASS INTERACTION IS BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING	POSITIVE VIEWS – CLASS INTERACTION IS BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING
SHARING DIFFERENT OPINIONS	ENCOURAGED CLAIM SUPPORTED IN STUDENTS COMMENTS	ENCOURAGED NO EVIDENCE FOR CLAIM IN OBSERVATIONS & STUDENTS COMMENTS	ENCOURAGED CLAIM SUPPORTED IN OBSERVATIONS & STUDENTS COMMENTS
STUDENTS RESPONSIBILITY FOR LEARNING	UNWORKABLE DUE TO SYLLABUS SCHEDULE, EXAMINATION FOCUS, UNDESIRABLE STUDENT REACTIONS & HIERARCHICAL CULTURAL VALUES	UNWORKABLE DUE TO SYLLABUS SCHEDULE, EXAMINATION FOCUS & HIERARCHICAL CULTURAL VALUES	UNWORKABLE DUE TO SYLLABUS SCHEDULE, EXAMINATION FOCUS, UNDESIRABLE STUDENT REACTIONS & HIERARCHICAL CULTURAL VALUES
	UNENTHUSIASTIC VIEWS – NOT FEASIBLE FOR DIFFERENT REASONS	UNENTHUSIASTIC VIEWS – NOT FEASIBLE FOR DIFFERENT REASONS	UNENTHUSIASTIC VIEWS – NOT FEASIBLE FOR DIFFERENT REASONS
MUTUAL RESPECT	STUDENTS ARE GIVEN DUE RESPECT BUT RESPECT FOR THE TEACHER MUST BE PRIORITISED HIGH POTENTIAL FOR NEGATIVE STUDENT REACTIONS CONTRADICTS HIERARCHICAL CULTURAL VALUES	STUDENTS ARE GIVEN DUE RESPECT BUT RESPECT FOR THE TEACHER MUST BE PRIORITISED HIGH POTENTIAL FOR NEGATIVE STUDENT REACTIONS CONTRADICTS HIERARCHICAL CULTURAL VALUES	STUDENTS ARE GIVEN DUE RESPECT BUT RESPECT FOR THE TEACHER MUST BE PRIORITISED HIGH POTENTIAL FOR NEGATIVE STUDENT REACTIONS CONTRADICTS HIERARCHICAL CULTURAL VALUES

Table 6.1: Teachers' views on five basic features of SCI

6.1.2 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE

6.1.2.1 RATIONALE FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICE

The three teachers used their personal beliefs to justify the different features of their civic education lessons, those that occurred in their previous lessons and those that were observed by the researcher. The civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade presented the personal reasons for their teaching methods in the following comments:

> LScvt: I don't employ a do it all by yourself teaching method. There are even cases where the students have class presentations, so that I get feedback from those that am teaching, because there is no one that will know everything.
> JScvt: (referring to his historical, discussion and drama approach) I prefer these methods because of the topics and significance of the subject. I thought that if at all I want to contribute to the development of this country I need to add my quota to it and how am I going to add my quota to the topic or the subject that is given to me. I should be able to make sure that I impart the knowledge on that student so that their attitude should be changed so I just sat down and thought that which method would be easy. That is why I decided that I should be using that three methods.

The civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade also implied that their personal beliefs drove the decision to ask questions and encourage students to respond during lessons. The two teachers said that seeking students' contribution during their civic education lessons was a means to acknowledge their own limitations and engage with their students' beliefs at the same time. The civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade shared their personal beliefs about encouraging students' contribution to lessons in the following comments:

> LScvt: they have several avenues of contributing, including assignments, expressing their views, opinions and suggestions in class. Sometimes I tell them to form their notes by themselves, and I give them a topic to write on. I think it is a good thing that they have the opportunity to share their views since there is no human being that does not have a contrary view to what another person is saying. What makes you a good human being is that you listen to other people. If you don't listen, you can't know if you are right or wrong or if the person's disposition to what you are doing is good. So, if I don't listen to the students there is no way I can really flow with them.
> JScvt: sometimes these students have a lot more experience than us. For example, when you are talking to them about poverty, you realise that they are passing through this or majority of them are experiencing poverty in life. Sometimes their parents find it difficult to eat and feed them. Those pupils can tell us what they are passing through. At that time, it is the teacher that is learning from them or their experiences … Nobody is an island of knowledge.

6.1.2.2 ADMITTED INFLUENCES ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE

The civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade showed that their personal objectives for learning determined the scope of activities that were used in their lessons. The two teachers said that they were able to achieve their desire to correct and change the wrong beliefs of their students by encouraging class discussions on subject content. The civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade shared their personal beliefs about encouraging classroom interaction in the following comments:

> LScvt: I can get feedback when I listen, and I can try to know the mind-sets of the students… for example a boy said that his mum is a nurse, and now assumes that he knows everything about medicines. That is his own thinking and that can affect him negatively. He might be in danger of drug abuse because of a medicine box that his mum keeps and he can use it without consulting his mum. In his case, I have to call his mum and tell her what the child thinks. So, by hearing them speak I can teach them better and help them as well, and let them know if what they believe is wrong. I have to tell the boy's mum about his assumptions, tell her to watch out for him and probably have a lock on her medicine box.
> JScvt: civics is not like other subjects, that is what I believe. You should allow the students to express their minds. They should express the thoughts that they had before about a topic, if it is negative, the teacher will correct it. That's why I prefer to be using that interacting and discussion method …

The three teachers also indicated that their personal beliefs determined their approach to classroom management and their relationship with their students. They reflected personal beliefs that it is highly essential for teachers to control their classrooms. The three teachers expressed personal beliefs that good classroom control is a sign of the teacher's proficiency and expertise. The civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade also emphasised that their relationship with their students were determined by their life philosophies and beliefs about discipline. The three teachers expressed their personal beliefs about relating to students and managing a classroom in the following comments:

> LScvt: my own approach to life and teaching is that I have to be friends with whoever I am teaching. If I am not friends with them, they can't come to me. They don't want to feel like their teachers are high and mighty, they want their teachers to relate with them. Someone like me, I am very open to them, I greet them and they call my name, because if I come down to their level they can relate better with me. Sometimes some of them come to talk to me about things that are not academic because they see me as a friend.
> CScvt: You can see some of them were busy doing other things when I was teaching them and I noticed this. That was why I branched to other things to explain to them that their future really matters. That whatever the teacher teaches them, they should be able to comprehend and know everything and it's for their own sake. Their destiny is in their own hands.
> JScvt: as far as I'm concerned there is cordial relationship between me and my students. They are very close to me and when they have problem at home they come to me and I will advise them that

> this is how you are supposed to do this and how you are supposed to do that … one thing is that as a teacher if you want to be respected by your students you need to be disciplined and make sure you control your class. I use cane and after I cane them, I will call them back and say 'come my students, it's not my fault this is what you did and it is not good. That's why they prefer to be attending my class.

6.1.2.3 PERCEPTIONS OF AIMS AND RESPONSIBILITIES IN TEACHING CIVIC EDUCATION

The civic education teachers also shared personal beliefs about their responsibilities for teaching civic education. The civic education teacher in Jade expressed his opinions about what it means to teach the subject more strongly than the other two teachers. However, personal interpretations of the purpose of teaching civic education were also reflected in the responses of the civic education teachers in Lavender and Cobalt. The three teachers said that civic education was primarily intended to teach morals and therefore required the teacher to be a moral guide and a role model to their students. The civic education teachers in Lavender and Jade described their personal beliefs about the implications of teaching the subject in the following comments:

> LScvt: I should also watch the students' morals as a civic education teacher, because the bulk of the topic we teach has to do with ongoing issues and morals. So, I should help the students adjust to a good moral lifestyle … we have to teach the students morals because we teach them topics including integrity, honesty, authentic-ness.
> JScvt: being a civic education teacher I have a lot to do … I think that the essence of introducing civics is that we want to change the negative attitude of the students and the negative values of the students. You want to inculcate the positive values on them … that is a big responsibility for me because it has to do with their behaviour and their morality. I must inculcate positive values in the students so that when they get home, their parents and the society at large will be able to see that these students have changed for better in terms of their dressing and morality. Everything must change

Examples of occasions where the teachers acted as moral guides and role models were also reflected in the observed civic education lessons and the teachers' interview data. They include cases where: (i) the teacher in Cobalt decided to give personal advice about planning for the future to her students during her civic education lessons, (ii) the teacher in Lavender gave personal advice to her students on topics taught during her civic education lessons, and (iii) the civic education teacher in Jade shared historical accounts and personal stories with his students, in order to improve their morals. The teachers'

decisions to act as moral guides in their civic education lessons were illustrated in the following comments:

> LScvt: There was a time I taught the JS3 about child abuse, and I told them that in the Nigerian law, if a child under 18 years is used as a domestic help without attending school or learning a trade, this constitutes child abuse. I told them that there are examples of such situations in Nigeria. One of the students that stays in my neighbourhood came to my house, she knocked and I invited her in. She told me that she told her mum about what I said because they have a child help at her house that doesn't go to school and is not learning a trade. I told her to encourage her mum to send the child to school or encourage her to learn a trade while she does her help duties.
> CScvt: (referring to her decision to give personal advice to students during the lessons) I branched[18] to advise them pertaining to their future most especially the girls that they should avoid premarital sex and they should face their studies squarely. there is no way a teacher will teach without branching to other aspects because they are here to acquire knowledge and know what they don't know. So, I believe by branching to other areas is just to enlighten them on ways in which they can live their lives and in order not to be dependent on their parents when they finish their education
> JScvt: sometimes I use historical method and discussion method. I prefer to be using those methods because in civics we want to correct the negative attitudes or negative values of our students or citizens. And when I want to correct it, I need to let the students know how our forefathers lived before the amalgamation of the northern and southern protectorate. When the northern and the southern protectorate were amalgamated together in 1914, that is when we started having problems, the white people came and they were selling their civilisation to us and we started dropping our culture and tradition. So, I prefer to be using the historical method so that students would know what happened in the olden days and check if it is comparable to what is happening presently. So, we compare the two and I will ask the students which one do you think is better?

The following table includes a summary of the teachers' views on classroom practice:

TEACHERS' VIEWS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE	**LSCVT**	**CSCVT**	**JSCVT**
RATIONALE FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICE	SEEK STUDENTS CONTRIBUTION TO GET FEEDBACK FROM STUDENTS &TO BE A GOOD HUMAN	NO ILLUSTRATIONS	SEEK STUDENTS CONTRIBUTION TO GAIN STUDENTS EXPERIENCE, NOBODY IS AN ISLAND OF KNOWLEDGE
	TEACHING APPROACH IS TO ENCOURAGE PARTICIPATION IN TEACHING, THERE IS NO ONE THAT WILL KNOW EVERYTHING	TEACHING APPROACH IS TO GUIDE THE STUDENTS CONCERNING THEIR FUTURE	TEACHING APPROACH IS TO EMPHASISE THE SIGNIFICANCE OF CIVIC EDUCATION TO THE COUNTRY, TO BE PATRIOTIC

[18] Branched – means that she took a break from explaining subject content to do something else

ADMITTED INFLUENCES ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE	ENCOURAGE CLASS ACTIVITIES TO CORRECT THE STUDENTS	NO ILLUSTRATIONS	ENCOURAGE CLASS ACTIVITIES TO CHANGE THE STUDENTS MIND-SET
	APPROACH TO CLASS MANAGEMENT & STUDENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP TO FULFIL LIFE PHILOSOPHY – BE FRIENDS WITH HER STUDENTS	APPROACH TO CLASS MANAGEMENT & STUDENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP - TO ENLIGHTEN STUDENTS ABOUT THEIR FUTURE	APPROACH TO CLASS MANAGEMENT & STUDENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP - TO ENSURE RESPECT BETWEEN HIM AND HIS STUDENTS
PERCIEVED RESPONSIBILITY FOR TEACHING CIVIC ED.	TO CHANGE NEGATIVE BELIEFS TO TEACH MORALS & WATCH STUDENT BEHAVIOUR	TO ENLIGHTEN THE STUDENTS	TO CHANGE NEGATIVE VALUES & ATTITUDES, TO INCULCATE POSITIVE VALUES

Table 6.2: teachers' views on existing classroom practice

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The three teachers shared similar views on the five basic features of SCI and reflected similar dispositions to classroom practice in their civic education lessons. The three teachers shared positive views about three of the five basic features of SCI – the use of class activities, the use of dialogue and interaction during lessons and the opportunity for students to negotiate knowledge with their teachers. This research finding compares with previous research that found positive reactions to SCI among teachers and stakeholders in developing countries (Sikoyo, 2010; Thompson, 2013). In some cases, teachers in developing countries have even argued that the features of SCI presented to them are not unfamiliar concepts since they were already in use in their classrooms (Thompson, 2013). Those teachers have also argued that the fact that those features are already existent in their lessons confirms that some measure of SCI has been achieved in their lessons (Thompson, 2013). Previous research about stakeholders' reactions to SCI has also shown that teachers may have positive responses to SCI based on their interpretations of the concept (Bantwini, 2010; Sikoyo, 2010).

The civic education teachers also suggested that they had achieved some form of SCI in their classrooms. They also held positive views about SCI based on their interpretations that these features – the use of class activities, the use of dialogue and interaction during lessons and the opportunity for students to negotiate knowledge with their teachers, are exclusive to SCI. However, the three features mentioned earlier are not exclusive to SCI. As mentioned earlier in chapter 2, the use of class activities as an example can manifest in both student-centred and teacher-centred classrooms (Guthrie, 2011). The use of class activities in a student-centred classroom would reflect the idea that students and teachers have become co-constructors of knowledge in the learning environment, but in a teacher-centred classroom it would reflect the teachers' control over knowledge (Taylor, 1990). The use of class activities in a teacher-centred classroom reflects teacher's control because it is initiated, led, and regulated by the teacher. The teachers' claims that they have already achieved some form of SCI in their classrooms can therefore be explained by the oversimplified translations of SCI in the local context and their own lack of awareness about SCI (recorded under RQI). There are arguments in the international literature which maintain that contextualised or local interpretations of SCI allow stakeholders to confuse and point to features of classroom practice, which are not exclusive to SCI as the evidence that they have achieved SCI to an extent in their classrooms (Guthrie, 2011).

The civic education teachers' positive views of SCI changed to more sceptical views when they were presented with two other basic features of SCI. The three teachers held less enthusiastic views about SCI that embodies the idea that students should be responsible for their learning and the notion of equal respect between teachers and their students. They gave different reasons for their less positive responses to these two features of SCI. However, the fact that these two features of SCI contradict the local community culture was commonly cited. This research finding compares with previous research that found unenthusiastic reactions among stakeholders to the principles of SCI, which contradict the local community and school culture in non-western countries (J. Clarke, 2010; O'Sullivan, 2004). It is important to note that the reactions of the three civic education teachers to the discussed features of SCI were similar despite the obvious differences between their qualifications, their level of training, their years of experience and their school types. This

observation indicates that the possibility for those three civic education teachers to accept or reject features of SCI was dependent on a factor other than those listed above. The research findings related to RQIII suggested that the personal beliefs and preferences of the civic education teachers, especially those informed by their cultural values contributed to their decision to accept or reject the different features of SCI.

The civic education teachers also used their personal beliefs to justify their approach to classroom practice. For example, the three teachers used personal interpretations of what it means to be a civic education teacher to justify the decision to be moral guides and role models for their students. This research finding resonates with the observation that 'all teachers hold beliefs, however defined and labelled, about their work, their students, their subject matter, and their roles and responsibilities' (Pajares, 1992, p. 314). This research finding also agrees with arguments from the international literature that teachers attach meaning and assumptions to their classroom activities, which in turn influence their classroom practices (Tabulawa, 1998). The civic education teachers referred to their personal beliefs to explain: (a) their teaching methods, (b) decisions to ask questions and seek students' contribution during their civic education lessons, (c) the available scope of activities during their lessons, (d) the decision to be moral guides and role models for their students, (e) disciplined approach to classroom management, and (f) the nature of their relationship with their students. This research finding suggests that the classroom practices observed across the selected public and private secondary schools were more dependent on the teachers' beliefs and preferences than the instructions provided in their subject syllabus.

Overall, the research findings presented in this section suggest that the personal beliefs and pedagogical preferences of the civic education teachers informed their reactions to the discussed features of SCI and their classroom practices. The civic education teachers reacted positively to the discussed features of SCI that matched their personal beliefs and unenthusiastically to those that did not match their personal beliefs or cultural values. This research finding compares with previous research which discovered that stakeholders in different countries tend to be more eager to accept and adopt concepts in education reform that resonate with their belief systems and preferences for learning (de la

Sablonnière, Taylor, & Sadykova, 2009; Tabulawa, 1998). The civic education teachers also gave preference to their beliefs in their teaching methods over the instructions provided in the civic education syllabus. This research finding suggests that the observed classroom practice in the civic education lessons was more dependent on teachers' beliefs and preferences than the expectations of curriculum reform. This deduction does not obviate the influence of the contextual factors identified under RQI. The combined influence of the contextual factors and the beliefs and preferences of teachers on observed classroom practices will be discussed in more detail in the discussion chapter.

6.2 STUDENTS' VIEWS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE AND SCI IMPLEMENTATION

RQIV – What are the perspectives of selected senior secondary year II students on classroom practices during their civic education lessons and SCI implementation?

The dataset of focus groups and students debrief sessions was qualitatively analysed for RQIV. See Appendix IV for the full list of key themes that were derived from data analysis. The first part of this section includes an account of the students' views that are related to the basic features of SCI or SCI implementation. This account is similar to the one presented in the first part of section 6.1. It presents students' views on a condensed list of basic features of SCI. As mentioned earlier in section 6.1, the researcher drafted a list of seven basic features of SCI from the definitions and principles of SCI presented within key texts about LCE in the international literature.

The responses of the civic education teachers and their students to the list of seven basic features of SCI were divided into two categories during data analysis – positive views of SCI and unenthusiastic views of SCI. The two categories are formed of views related to five themes, which include: (a) the use of class activities, (b) the use of dialogue and interaction during lessons, (c) the opportunity for students to negotiate knowledge with their teachers, (d) the idea that students should be responsible for their learning and (e) the notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students. Again, this account presents students' views on an abridged version of the list of the basic features of SCI

suggested by the researcher. The themes were derived from raw data although the data itself was formed in response to the researcher's list of seven basic features of SCI.

The second part of this section includes an account of the views of selected students on classroom practice during their civic education lessons. The views of senior secondary year II (SSII) students from two public secondary schools and one private secondary school in Nigeria are presented in the first and second parts of this section. Focus groups were conducted with two groups of students in each school, and each group was made up of six students from one classroom. More detail about the student samples are already included in Chapter 4. Please note that the accounts presented in the first and second part of this section do not include comparisons between the teachers and students' views. The comparisons are presented separately in section 6.3.

6.2.1A POSITIVE VIEWS OF SCI

6.2.1.1 THE USE OF CLASS ACTIVITIES

Five of the six student groups held positive views about the use of class activities during their civic education lessons. Those five groups included the social science students' group in Lavender, the two student groups in Cobalt and the two student groups in Jade. Students within these five groups said that they were in favour of the use of class activities during their civic education lessons. The two student groups in Jade and the social science students' group in Lavender also mentioned that class activities had been conducted before during their civic education lessons and described some of those experiences. The social science students' group in Lavender shared experiences of a class activity in the following excerpt:

> F2: I can remember one activity that she gave us in JSS1. She told us that
> M1: (cuts in) I can't remember
> M2: talents
> F2: yes, our talents, yes, she said we could maybe take pictures, or we can sing
> F3: what did you do?
> F2: I cooked
> Researcher: what did she tell you to do?
> F2: it was a project that she said we should do to
> M1 & M2: show our talents
> F2: she said we should snap it, that is someone will take a picture of what we are doing

F1: or maybe we record it in things like audio recorders, maybe if you are singing
Others: yes
F1: like we can record it in a CD, so that we can give it to the class and play it and listen to the songs
F3: yes

Social science students, Lavender

The two student groups in Cobalt said that they had only experienced question-and-answer sessions, but expressed their preference for more class activities during their civic education lessons. These five student groups showed preference for the use of class activities during their civic education lessons by either describing what they had gained from their previous experiences or pointing out the likely benefits of its application. The two student groups in Jade and the social science students' group in Lavender said that the use of class activities had promoted student engagement during their lessons, helped them to remember their learning experiences, and helped them to achieve better understanding of the subject content. The two student groups in Cobalt also said that it is highly likely that the use of class activities would lead to better understanding of subject content in their civic education lessons. The social science students' group in Lavender described their thoughts about participating in class activities in the following excerpt:

M2: the drama that was something that is different. It was a way for us to learn new things. Because we were the ones that were experiencing it or acting it out. So, the drama was like a way that we were taught
F1: by ourselves
M2: it was like we were teaching ourselves, she was just supervising us. That's another way that we learn things, we learn during practice
Researcher: What are your thoughts about opportunities that you are given to work on your own
F2: is it during projects?
(Yes)
All: it's good.
F3: it's good because we will be able to research some more, be able to get more points or more information and it will always stick in your mind because you are the one that did it yourself
M1: yes

Social science students, Lavender

Only one of the six student groups did not hold positive views about the use of class activities during their civic education lessons. The science students' group in Lavender held unenthusiastic views about the use of class activities unlike the other five student groups. The science students group in Lavender reiterated the views shared by their peers from

the same school that they have had a few experiences of class activities during their civic education lessons. However, students in science group said that they would prefer to have fewer and even less frequent class activities during their lessons. They argued that more class activities could become a distraction and prevent learning during their lessons. The science students' group in Lavender described experiences of class activities and their thoughts about this feature in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing their experience of class activities)
> F1: we have drama, class presentation or projects. We are allowed to do projects on our own or as a group. She can give us a class drama or a topic that she wants each person to know so that they come to the class and explain their views about it... She can also make a group of four or five students and give them different topics and tell them to come to class for each group to explain the topic that they have been given. It is more like this set of people explain and teach other groups about a topic that they don't know and the next group does the same thing. I guess it's a good idea for the projects and the drama.
> M1: I think the only time we work alone is during projects and tests, personal projects and tests. Then we only work together during drama. But the class presentation, its only once that we have done it
> F2: yes, maybe for other classes like the arts students they would have more activities
> M1: we are in science class so we just did the class activity once. In our normal classes she will just come, explain and ask questions
> M2: it's just once in a while that we have class activities actually
> F1: I prefer her doing that, because if you give me a project
> F3: we don't like it
> F1: I don't mind. I will do it and submit it.
> M3: no one will actually read it or go over the project
> F1: exactly and we only do it because of the marks. Also during drama, sometimes people are not cooperative or things are happening and people don't want to work with other people. So, I prefer the way she is, like we don't do a lot of those activities. We don't do a lot of drama or projects in civics. I prefer the way she is doing this because the project or activity where she puts us into groups and then one person will talk about one topic, sometimes we are not even listening to what the other students are saying, we are just laughing
> M1: or chatting while others present
> F1: exactly, we are not concentrating
>
> Science students, Lavender

The science students' group in Lavender also said they were in favour of fewer class activities because such activities can be ineffective. The science students recalled past experiences where their teacher's aim to get students involved in individual projects and assignments were disappointed by observations that the students merely copied sources from the web. They also argued that their individual projects and assignments did little to improve students' understanding of the subject content. The science students' group in Lavender shared their thoughts about class activities in the following excerpt:

F2: I didn't even understand the project
F1: a lot of people I know just went to google
M1: copy and paste
F2: drop and submit, and get good marks. Someone that uses the textbook, gets references, puts everything together and type it out will get maybe higher marks
F2: the probability of passing the project on your own is very low
M1: it's because people don't want to be reading loads of stuff. So, the best thing is to just enter it on google, it will bring out, then you copy and paste that's the end.
Researcher: what's your teacher's response to this?
F2: the only time that a teacher has ever noticed is in JS2 our basic science teacher, he was surprised because he didn't expect what happened. Because everybody went to google
…
F3: the activities are not actually achieving the desired result. They are just to teach us at least knowing how to google topics (laughs)

Science students, Lavender

6.2.1.2THE USE OF DIALOGUE AND INTERACTION

All the six student groups held positive views about the use of dialogue and interaction in classroom learning. Students within the six groups said that classroom interaction was conducted through recitation and question-and-answer sessions during their civic education lessons. Their views reflected beliefs that this feature of SCI was already part of their learning experiences and it should continue. However, students within the six groups argued that the use of classroom interaction should to be regulated during their civic education lessons. They argued that continuous classroom interaction can cause students to be disengaged from their lessons. The social science students' group in Lavender shared their views on the possible outcomes of continuous classroom interaction in the following excerpt:

(Discussing thoughts on classroom interaction)
M2: when the class is too interactive, then
F2: if we are interacting with our friends, we will not pay attention to what the teacher is saying
M3: yeah, everybody will get distracted.
F2: everybody will get distracted
M1: The class will become noisy if everybody is talking at the same time.
Researcher: do you all agree?
All: yes
F3: if the teacher talks, we will not be able to hear well because we will be like, what is this person saying
F1: we will be carried away

F3: yes, that's it

Social science students, Lavender

The six student groups suggested that they were open to classroom interaction during their civic education lessons, as long as those interactions are regulated by the teacher. The science students' group in Lavender also said that classroom interaction is often unnecessary in their civic education lessons because their teacher's explanations covers all that they need to know. Students from the other five groups also expressed beliefs that listening to the teacher's explanation should be the priority during their civic education lessons. The science students in Lavender shared their thoughts about classroom interaction in the following excerpt:

F1: I think we should listen in class because if they give us more time to talk, we are students and we will just start saying things that are maybe different and unnecessary. We will not talk about the topic, we will just
M2: digress
F1: exactly, or maybe we will start laughing and all of that. Actually, we will even want to listen because of the important topics. We will actually want to care about what the teacher has to say. So, I think we should listen and I don't think we should be given more time to talk.
M1: even if they give us more time to talk, there is nothing to talk about because when she is explaining she just says it all
F2: yes, we shouldn't be given more time to talk, we should listen well. Our civics teacher, she teaches slowly in a way everybody will understand…
F1: sometimes, she will say something and I can quickly say to my friend that I have a neighbour like that. If she stops to listen to what we have to say every time, it will just be a very rowdy class. And again, she has already said everything that we want to know, so we should just listen, take notes, and if we have anything to add, then we can add it

Science students, Lavender

6.2.1.3 Opportunities to Share Different Opinions on subject Content

Five of the six student groups held positive views about having the opportunity to share different opinions on subject content. Those five groups included the two student groups in Lavender, the social science students' group in Cobalt and the two student groups in Jade. The two student groups in Lavender and Jade said that they had opportunities to negotiate subject knowledge with their teachers during civic education lessons. They also

described some of those experiences. The science students from Jade shared past experiences of negotiating subject knowledge with their civic education teacher in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing opportunity to share different opinions)
> M2: Yes, we can
> Others: yes
> Researcher: Give me an example
> M1: in the form of asking the teacher questions on what we don't really understand
> M2: or if the student has read something at home and it is quite different from what the teacher is teaching, the student can ask questions. Maybe what he read is the same thing with what is written in the textbook, then he can question the teacher…
> M1: in other words, we can say that – Sir, I don't think what you said is the right thing. This is supposed to be like this instead of saying Sir, you are wrong
>
> Science students, Jade

The five student groups also showed their preference for the opportunity to negotiate knowledge with their civic education teachers by describing what they gained from past experiences. The two student groups in Lavender and Jade said that this feature enabled them to engage better with their lessons and obtain adequate information on subject content. They also argued that negotiating the right information with their teachers, ensured that they could match the knowledge required for their examinations. The science students in Jade discussed the benefits of sharing different opinions during lessons in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing their thoughts on sharing different opinions during their lessons)
> M1: I think it is a good thing for the students and the teacher, and it encourages good relationship between them. If a student can ask questions and the teacher is able to answer them.
> F3: yes.
> F1: It enables the student to study harder before coming to class and they will be encouraged
> M2: it helps students to understand better what the teacher is teaching or assimilate it. During examinations, they will be able to know what they are supposed to put down. I think it is good
> F2: yes
> M3: I agree, because the student will be able to understand what the teacher is saying or explaining, and there will be a good result at the end of the day or at the end of the lesson.
>
> Science students, Jade

The two student groups in Lavender also held positive interpretations of the opportunity to negotiate subject knowledge. They said that opportunities to negotiate the right

information with their teachers shows that they were readily contributing to their civic education lessons. The students expressed beliefs that opportunities to negotiate knowledge were already existing in their lessons and had its own benefits. The science students in Lavender discussed the implications of this feature in the following excerpt:

> F1: yes, if she cannot pronounce something, like marijuana. We have some teachers that will just come to class and say something wrong (laughs) we can correct a teacher. I can correct my civic teacher but I don't know about
> M1: other teachers (laughs)
> F2: exactly, yes
> M1: like our chemistry teacher can't be corrected (All exclaim) …
> F1: yes, we can correct our civics teacher. We can bring up something confusing. Maybe when we were browsing at home we read something that is not from the scheme of work or we can ask a question that is out of the subject, she will still answer us
> M1: she will still answer if she knows it
> F1: seriously, we are contributing to the lesson, I think she learns from us too
> F2: yes, and we learn from her as well

Science students, Lavender

One out of the six student groups was unenthusiastic about opportunities to negotiate knowledge with their civic education teacher. The science students' group in Cobalt said that there were no opportunities to share different opinions about subject content because their civic education teacher would not approve. They said that the fear of punishment had discouraged them from negotiating subject knowledge with their civic education teacher during their lessons. The science students in Cobalt discussed reasons for not negotiating subject knowledge with their civic education teacher in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing opportunity to share different opinions)
> M3: there is no opportunity to question our teacher…
> M2: to say that what the teacher says is wrong?
> F2: yes
> F1: no, there is no opportunity
> M1: when you say that this is wrong or right, she will say that I am the one that taught your elder brother or sister (laughs)
> F2: yes, yes
> M1: She will say that I am the one that taught them and they did not say that what I am saying is wrong
> F1: she can even tell you to go to another classroom
> M2: I can give you an example. One day she said that she thinks the Nigerian defence academy is in Kano state when she was giving an example. But I know that the Nigerian defence academy is in Kaduna state. Nobody had the boldness
> F1: or opportunity

M2: to tell her that it is Kaduna state because she will drag that person out.
F1: She will say follow me to the staffroom and you will get punished

Science students, Cobalt

The science students in Cobalt also said that they understood the likely benefits of negotiating subject knowledge with their civic education teacher. They said that sharing different opinions during lessons would enable the students to acquire adequate information about subject content. This also said that it would help to increase students' participation in their civic education lessons. The science students in Cobalt discussed the likely benefits of negotiating knowledge with their civic education teacher in the following excerpt:

Researcher: would you like to share different opinions during your lessons?
F1: yes
M1: yes
M2: we have to do this because there are some topics that are complicated and some teachers may make mistakes. They will not correct it but move on to another topic…
M2: I think that it will make the teacher to be more responsible. Because sometimes a teacher gives the wrong information. If you correct the teacher the students will be able to know that this is wrong or what the teacher said is wrong
F1: yes
M2: just like the one I said about the Nigerian defence academy. When I discussed it with my classmates later, they said the defence academy is in Kano. They rejected it when I told them that the Nigerian defence academy is in Kaduna state. They said no because what the teacher said confused them
(Anyone else?)
F2: we agree

Science students, Cobalt

Even though the science students in Cobalt showed preference for sharing different opinions through their responses, they also maintained that it cannot occur during their civic education lessons because of the teacher. They reflected beliefs that the disposition of their civic education teacher had prevented opportunities to share different opinions during their lessons. The science students in Cobalt discussed the possibility of sharing different opinions during their civic education lessons in the following excerpt:

Researcher: what do you think about sharing different opinions in future lessons?
F2: I don't think that will
M1: that one can never happen
F1: it can never happen

F1 & F2: in civic education?
M1: unless we have another teacher
F3: we don't mean that it can't happen with other teachers but that with our civic education
F1: it can't happen
F3: we don't think so

Science students, Cobalt

6.2.1B UNENTHUSIASTIC VIEWS OF SCI

6.2.1.4 THE IDEA THAT STUDENTS SHOULD BE RESPONSIBLE FOR THEIR OWN LEARNING

All the six student groups were sceptical of the idea that students should contribute to decisions on their own learning. The student groups shared similar views that this feature of SCI would be unworkable in their civic education lessons for different reasons. The common reasons that they identified include: (a) obligations to complete the subject syllabus, and (b) the fact that subject content is examination-driven. The social science students in Lavender and Cobalt said that their civic education teachers made the decisions about classroom learning because they would also decide the content of their examinations. In other words, subject content is taught with focus on examinations, and it should be determined by the teacher who writes the questions for the examination. The social science students' group in Lavender discussed factors that would prevent increased students' responsibility for learning in the following excerpt:

(Discussing the opportunity to make decisions about learning)
F2: it depends on the syllabus I guess, and the teachers are the ones that will set the exam. We are not going to be the ones to decide what we want when we write the exam and if we choose what we want during the lesson, it is definitely not what we want that the teachers will give us during the exam. And most times what we want might not be the best for us.
Researcher: Does everybody share that opinion?
M1: as for me, I'm not in total agreement. I am only partially agreeing with the fact that what we want might not always be best for us. Because maybe there is someone that wants to study sexual abuse and another person wants to learn about drugs. Then the students will insist that what I need is what you should teach me or they can say that what I need is not what you are teaching me.
Researcher: do you mean that maybe there are too many opinions?
M1: yes
F3: a subject cannot treat everybody's needs, it just focuses on what is important I guess
M2: yes

Social science students, Lavender

In the underlined phrases above, the social science students in Lavender reflected beliefs that the differences between students' preferences would also prevent occasions for students to contribute to decisions about learning. The social science students in Jade also shared this viewpoint. They said that disagreements would occur when students contribute to decisions about learning based on their personal preferences. The social science students in Jade discussed the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning in the following excerpt:

> M1: that one can cause disagreement in the class. If somebody say I want to learn this or I want you to teach me
> F1: one subject
> M1: this particular subject and another person will say that they
> F2: want HIV
> M1: or raise another topic. So that one can cause disagreement.

Social science students, Jade

The unenthusiastic reactions to the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning also reflected beliefs that it would interfere with the teacher's role during learning activities. The two student groups in Jade said that the teacher should make the decisions on classroom learning. They also said that students would be in conflict with the teacher's mandate if they contributed to decisions on classroom learning. The science students in Jade discussed the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing opportunity to make decisions about learning)
> M1: … the teacher has to choose the subject or topic that he is going to teach the students in the classroom. But during the lesson, the student may have the privilege to say that this is what we want to revise and this is what we didn't understand. Maybe during the class, the teacher can go back to it
> M2: during lessons[19]
> Researcher: Can you explain?

[19] Reference to school lessons – these are extra-mural classes that take place after school hours. Students pay their teachers to be taught for extra hours

M2: During the school lessons, he will ask us about the subject or the topic that we want to do and all of us will respond. The topic that the highest number of persons vote for, that is the one that he is going to teach us

Science students, Jade

THIS NOTICE IS REPEATED FROM THE FIRST PART OF SECTION 6.1.

The findings of this research are presented under the next theme with the awareness that mutual respect might be interpreted differently across different contexts. As noted in the first part of section 6.1, the views shared by the civic education teachers included personal interpretations of mutual respect as a term, as well as reactions to the interpretations of mutual respect as a feature of SCI. Data analysis revealed a similar approach in the views shared by the six student groups. The student groups also shared two interpretations of mutual respect – equal respect and reciprocated respect. The students' interpretations were also similar to the interpretations of their civic education teachers. They shared interpretations of mutual respect as equal respect when it implies a loss of hierarchical relations between teachers and their students. They also shared interpretations of mutual respect as reciprocated respect when it does not imply the loss of hierarchical relations between teachers and their students. The following account highlights indications within the views of the six student groups, of positive reactions to one interpretation of mutual respect, and unenthusiastic reactions to the other interpretation of the same term.

6.2.1.5 THE NOTION OF MUTUAL RESPECT BETWEEN TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Five out the six student groups were sceptical of the notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students. Those five groups included the two student groups in Lavender, the two student groups in Jade and the social science students' group in Cobalt. Initially during their group discussions, students in those five groups reflected beliefs that can be reciprocated between teachers and students. Students in the five groups said that they had good relationships with their civic education teachers. The two student groups in Lavender and the two student groups in Jade also described the positive attitudes of their civic education teachers to indicate that the teachers give them due respect. In this way, the views shared by the student groups highlighted one interpretation of mutual

respect as reciprocated respect between teachers and students. The social science students in Lavender described the positive attitude of their civic education teacher in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing student-teacher relations)
> F1: she's fine
> F2: She is informal
> F1: yes
> F2: she is not formal at all, not in a bad sense. She is friendly and we can relate with her well. She is not like some teachers that we will be jittery about (laughs)
> M1: no worries, no need to fear
> …
> F2: when we want to ask questions, we don't have to be afraid, we can go to her anytime.

Social science students, Lavender

However, subsequent reactions from students in those five groups reflected beliefs that respect cannot be equally acknowledged between teachers and their students. Those views reflected a second interpretation of mutual respect as equal respect between teachers and students. Students in the five groups said that respect for the teacher should be the priority in classroom learning. They also said that teachers should be fairly strict and not laidback with their students. Such views indicated that the students were in favour of hierarchical student-teacher relationships in their learning environments. The science students in Jade discussed their interpretations of mutual respect as 'equal respect' between teachers and students in the following excerpt:

> M1: As for me, I don't think a teacher has to have to respect the students because when there is too much respect for the students, the students are going to count it to another thing
> M2: a teacher should at least have a little respect for the students … but here, I don't really think they have that much respect for students
> F2: In what way can the teacher respect the student?
> Researcher: are you saying that it's impossible for the teacher to respect the students?
> F2 &F1: yes
> F1: I think it's impossible because if the teacher has respect for the students, they won't respect the teacher
> M1: but I think the teacher must not be too harsh to the students, they can be a bit harsh and this will enable the students to have respect for their teachers. When they see the teacher coming, they will have to take him or her serious. But when there's too much respect for the students, like teachers playing with the students or joking with them and all of that, the students are going to count it to another thing
> F3: I agree

Science students, Jade

As shown in the underlined phrases above, the unenthusiastic reactions of the students to this feature of SCI were also informed by beliefs that it would generate negative reactions from the students. Students in the five groups said that there was a high tendency for students to react with overfamiliarity towards the teachers that respect them. The social science students in Lavender also said that overfamiliarity between teachers and students can have negative impact on learning experiences. They said that lenient relationships with some of their teachers resulted in flippant learning experiences. Such views also reflected the students' interpretation of mutual respect as reduced control of students in the learning environment. The social science students in Lavender discussed their views about student-teacher relations in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing student-teacher relations)
> M1: I think it is bad if you are disrespecting your teacher or taking your teacher for granted
> F3: But it's not everybody that
> F2 & F3: takes our teacher for granted…
> F2: we don't expect the teacher to be too strict
> F1: but some teachers are really too friendly
> M1: like they should be strict
> F2: a little bit strict
> (Discussing another teacher)
> F2: our physics teacher is too friendly
> M2: yes, Mr dry jokes is too friendly.
> Researcher: Please define too friendly?
> M1: he makes topics that are serious seem as if they are not serious. This affects us because we will not take what he is teaching as something that we are meant to face squarely.
>
> Social science students, Lavender

Only one of the six student groups said that they were in favour of mutual respect between teachers and their students. The science students in Cobalt reflected beliefs that their civic education teacher had not shown them due respect in the classroom. They said that experiences such as the teacher's constant nagging, verbal abuse and physical punishment indicated that mutual respect was non-existent in their civic education lessons. The science students in Cobalt discussed their relationship with their civic education teacher in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing student-teacher relations)
> F1: No, our teacher does not respect us
> M1: Capital No

M2: I think some students have the attribute of respect but some teachers just don't give themselves respect
M1: yes
M2: in the way they talk to you, and in the way, they analyse their victim, in everything
F2: or in the way they use words to abuse us
F1: they even curse, they curse sometimes
…
M2: she likes complaining
F1: yes, she cannot come to our class without complaining about girls or boys
M2: anytime she comes to class, even if she's explaining something in the topic and that explanation is compulsory if she sees just one thing
F1: she will talk
M2: she will talk and that explanation she will not continue it.
Others: yes
M2: and she will now focus on the students instead…
F2: it is not every student that likes her
F1: any time she is inside the class, some students frown their faces and the class will
M1 & F3: just be dull
M3: that is why we always sleep, or some of us
F3: some will sleep and some will be talking
M1: some will be playing bets
…
F2: anytime she enters the class, everybody says trouble has arrived oh
M2: some students run away
F1: yes

Science students, Cobalt

As shown in the underlined phrases above, the science students in Cobalt reflected beliefs that their teacher's attitude had negative outcomes for learning, such as student disengagement from classroom learning. They showed preference for reciprocated respect between teachers and students by describing the positive impact that it would have on their learning experiences. The science students in Cobalt said that reciprocated respect between teachers and students would improve student engagement with their civic education lessons. The science students in Cobalt discussed the likely outcomes of reciprocated respect in the following excerpt:

Researcher: what do you think about having mutual respect between you and your teacher?
M1: yes
Others: yes
…
M2: students will know that this teacher respects me
F1: yes
F2: if there is respect, anytime we have her class, students will not run away. If we have mutual respect between us, we will be more encouraged
F1: more comfortable in the class

F2: yes

Science students, Cobalt

Overall, the reactions of the six student groups to the five basic features of SCI were varied. Five of six student groups were in favour of frequent use of class activities in their civic education lessons. All the six student groups were in favour of classroom interaction during lessons as long as it is regulated by their civic education teacher. All the six student groups showed preference for the opportunity for students to share different opinions, but one of the six groups maintained that it would be difficult to achieve this feature of SCI in their civic education lessons. All the six student groups were sceptical of the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning in the classroom and presented different reasons why it would be difficult to achieve this feature of SCI in their civic education lessons. Lastly, all the six student groups were in favour of reciprocated respect between teachers and students in the classroom. However, five of the six student groups added that respect for teachers should be prioritised therefore rejecting the idea that equal respect between students and teachers should be pursued in classroom learning.

A common pattern was evident in the varied views that the six student groups shared on the five basic features of SCI. The students responded with emphasis on the feasibility of each feature in their civic education lessons. For instance, the two student groups in Lavender and the two student groups in Jade described previous experiences of class activities to illustrate that this feature of SCI was feasible in their civic education lessons. Also, all the six student groups pointed to questions-and-answer sessions, recitation and whole-class discussions as the indicators of classroom interaction to state that dialogue and interaction can be achieved during their civic education lessons. Similarly, the two student groups in Lavender and the two student groups in Jade described previous experiences of sharing different opinions during classroom learning to suggest that it is an achievable option in their civic education lessons. The science students' group in Cobalt however described their previous learning experiences to support arguments that the opportunity to share different opinions would not be feasible in their civic education lessons.

The following table includes a summary of the views shared by the six student groups on five basic features of SCI:

STUDENTS' VIEWS ABOUT SCI	LAVENDER		COBALT		JADE	
	LSGRPA	LSGRPB	CSGRPA	CSGRPB	JSGRPA	JSGRPB
CLASS ACTIVITIES	AVAILABLE BUT NOT PREFERRED; CAN BE A DISTRACTION OR PREVENT LEARNING	AVAILABLE AND PREFERRED; CAN PROMOTE PARTICIPATION & HELP LEARNING	NOT AVAILABLE BUT PREFERRED; CAN HELP LEARNING	NOT AVAILABLE BUT PREFERRED; CAN HELP LEARNING	AVAILABLE AND PREFERRED; CAN AID RETENTION & HELP LEARNING	AVAILABLE AND PREFERRED; CAN AID RETENTION & HELP LEARNING
DIALOGUE & INTERACTION	WELCOMED IN MODERATION; TEACHER'S EXPLANATION IS MORE IMPORTANT	WELCOMED IN MODERATION; TEACHER'S EXPLANATION IS MORE IMPORTANT	WELCOMED IN MODERATION; TEACHER'S EXPLANATION IS MORE IMPORTANT	WELCOMED IN MODERATION; TEACHER'S EXPLANATION IS MORE IMPORTANT	WELCOMED IN MODERATION; TEACHER'S EXPLANATION IS MORE IMPORTANT	WELCOMED IN MODERATION; TEACHER'S EXPLANATION IS MORE IMPORTANT
SHARING DIFFERENT VIEWS	ALREADY AVAILABLE & BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING	ALREADY AVAILABLE & BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING	BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING, PREFERRED BUT NOT FEASIBLE	BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING, PREFERRED	ALREADY AVAILABLE & BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING	ALREADY AVAILABLE & BENEFICIAL TO LEARNING
STUDENTS' RESPONSIBILITY FOR LEARNING	NOT FEASIBLE – DUE TO SYLLABUS & EXAM-ORIENTATION	NOT FEASIBLE – DUE TO SYLLABUS, EXAM-ORIENTATION & VARIED PREFERENCES	NOT FEASIBLE – DUE TO SYLLABUS	NOT FEASIBLE – DUE TO SYLLABUS	NOT FEASIBLE – DUE TO VARIED PREFERENCES & IT INTERFERES WITH TEACHER'S ROLE	NOT FEASIBLE – DUE TO SYLLABUS REQ. & IT INTERFERES WITH TEACHER'S ROLE
MUTUAL RESPECT	RESPECT SHOULD BE RECIPROCRATED; H/W RESPECT FOR TEACHER IS THE PRIORITY	RESPECT SHOULD BE RECIPROCRATED; H/W RESPECT FOR TEACHER IS THE PRIORITY	RESPECT SHOULD BE RECIPROCRATED; MUTUAL RESPECT IS BENEFICIAL & PREFERRED	RESPECT SHOULD BE RECIPROCRATED; H/W RESPECT FOR TEACHER IS THE PRIORITY	RESPECT SHOULD BE RECIPROCRATED; H/W RESPECT FOR TEACHER IS THE PRIORITY	RESPECT SHOULD BE RECIPROCRATED; H/W RESPECT FOR TEACHER IS THE PRIORITY

Table 6.3: students' views on the five basic features of SCI

6.2.2 STUDENTS' VIEWS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE

6.2.2.1 PREFERENCES FOR LEARNING

The research findings revealed that the six student groups had preferences for classroom practice during their civic education lessons. Five of the six student groups identified preferences for learning while describing usual classroom practice during their civic education lessons. Those five groups included the two student groups in Lavender, the social science students' group in Cobalt and the two student groups in Jade. Students in those five groups said that they preferred to listen to their teachers' explanations. They said that their teachers' explanations and use of illustrations during teaching helped them to understand the subject content. The social science students in Cobalt discussed their preferences for classroom practice in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing classroom practice)
> M2: I prefer to listen to what the teacher is saying and I will be able to bring out my own definition
> F2: when the teacher is explaining, I can understand but after class I also read on my own
> M3: when she gives us an example, her teaching is clear to us …
> Researcher: what about if she is using teaching aids?
> F1: if she uses movies the class will be distracted
> M1: we will not listen
> F2: the examples she always uses are very simple

Social science students, Cobalt

As shown in the underlined phrase above, some students suggested that they would prefer their teachers' explanations over the use of teaching aids or the use of class activities during their civic education lessons. Their views reflected preference for teaching methods that ensure good performance in examinations over teaching methods with main focus on student engagement. For instance, the science students in Lavender said that they preferred fewer occurrences of class activities during their civic education lessons. They criticised some of their class activities as being irrelevant for their final examinations. The science students in Lavender suggested that they preferred their teacher's explanations because they considered it be the most efficient way to achieve good performance during examinations. The science students in Lavender discussed their objectives and preferences for classroom practice in the following excerpt:

F1: I don't know about other civic classes. But in our own class, I think that the methods that she is using are very good. At least it is producing the desired result. If we want to write civics in an external exam at least we are sure that we are going to pass
M1: Yes
F1: civics is a straightforward
M1: it's not really straightforward
F1: it is
F2: sometimes, during tests she asks questions that require you to think.
M2: yeah, but apart from that it is straightforward …
F1: I think that her tests questions, or sometimes I feel that they are unrealistic. Because they are not going to ask us questions like that in WAEC
F2: they won't give us problem situations like that
F1: exactly, maybe she should not ask questions like that since we are not doing literature or government. These are the only topics that they ask questions like that, so I feel that they are maybe unrealistic. They are not the best because we are in SS2 and we are about to write our exams. It is actually okay for continuous tests but maybe she should be asking us questions that she is anticipating
M1: for WAEC
F: yes.

Science students, Lavender

Students in the six groups also described the preferred means of contribution to their civic education lessons. Five of the six student groups were in favour of participating in recitations, question-and-answer sessions and whole-class discussions. Those five groups included the two student groups in Lavender, the social science students' group in Cobalt and the two student groups in Jade. Students in those five groups said that they were satisfied with those familiar modes of interaction in their civic education lessons. Only one student group indicated that they would prefer more opportunities to contribute to their civic education lessons. The science students in Cobalt indicated that they were dissatisfied with only recitations and question-and-answer sessions. They said that lengthy explanations and lack of student contribution dissuaded students during their civic education lessons. The science students in Cobalt discussed their dislikes in classroom practice in the following excerpt:

M2: some students, if the class is becoming too much of talk and they are not even allowed to participate, and not even examples or practical things, students always sleep because they will get tired
F1: yes
M2: they will get tired of the topic
F1: yes
M2: if the students do not have a part to talk in the lesson
F2: most of the time the students
M2: students often get tired and become fast asleep

F1: yes

Science students, Cobalt

Students' views on classroom practice also suggested that they made deliberate choices on how to contribute to their civic education lessons. As mentioned earlier, the science students in Lavender said that they would prefer to listen to the teacher's explanations rather than participate in class activities. The social science students in Cobalt also shared similar views. Students in these two groups indicated that they often choose to listen to the teacher's explanations rather than ask questions during their civic education lessons. The social science students in Cobalt discussed the contrast between their teacher's expectations and their own preferences for learning in the following excerpt:

M1: we are expected to respond to questions by the teacher and we are expected to practice some of the things that she teaches
F1: we are expected to write notes at the right time.
F2: And also, to contribute to the lesson.
F3: if she asks questions we should answer her questions
…
Researcher: What would you prefer?
F1: to listen
F2: to pay full attention
M1: to listen more than writing notes.
M2: even when we are writing notes, we are expecting the teacher to interpret or explain

Social science students, Cobalt

6.2.2.2 Reactions to classroom practice

The research findings also suggested that most of the students held positive views about classroom practice in their civic education lessons. Five of the six student groups said that they were satisfied with classroom practice in their civic education lessons. Those five groups included the two student groups in Lavender, the social science students' group in Cobalt and the two student groups in Jade. Students within these five groups said that they were contented with their teacher's approach and attitude to teaching civic education. The science students in Lavender also justified their satisfaction with classroom practice during their civic education lessons. Their views indicated that the teacher's approach was sufficient because it assured good academic performance in their

examinations. The science students in Lavender discussed their views about classroom practice during their civic education lessons in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing thoughts on classroom practice)
> F1: I think it's very effective, because nobody fails or most people don't fail civics
> …
> F1: I think she is not boring. She is not just some teacher that will come and be talking and talking.
> M1: she is interactive
> F1: exactly
> M1: she is friendly
> F2: and jovial, she uses interesting examples
> M2: or methods, yes
> M1: she always has an example for the topics and explains in a way that people will understand.
> F2: I think we are happy with her methods

Science students, Lavender

Five of the six student groups also said that they enjoyed the existing form of classroom practice in their civic education lessons. Those five groups included the two student groups in Lavender, the social science students' group in Cobalt and the two student groups in Jade. The two student groups in Jade and the social science students' group in Lavender recalled previous learning experiences that they considered to be engaging and enjoyable. Students in those groups said that they particularly enjoyed past experiences of class activities during their civic education lessons. The science students in Jade discussed some of the learning experiences that they enjoyed in the following excerpt:

> M1: What I like is that whenever we come to class, he helps us to practice the things he taught us on that very day. For example, when he taught us political elections, we formed two parties in the classroom and out of the two parties there was a representative competing for the governor position. The other students acted like the masses who are going to vote in the election that we were going to have. We even had ballots or something like that. In order for us to understand the topic.
> We recreated the election process, where some students support this party or another party. We also wrote the party that we support on a paper and dropped it into the ballot box. After that some students among us that acted like the electoral commission did the counting of votes. We chose the members of the electoral commission by ourselves. They went to the front of the class, brought out the box, unwrapped the ballot and they counted votes for the two parties. After that a particular person was chosen to announce the winner, that person will act like those newscasters. He was chosen to announce the results to us when it is time. The party that carried the majority was the winner.
> I liked or I love that very much because it was a very exciting experience.
> M3: I liked that he asked us to draw for our assignments, like the map of Nigeria
> F3: I like my teacher, I like how he teaches us and he gives us examples, he can give us notes and he also gives us assignments
> F1: he gives us examples …

M2: he told us that he will bring his laptop once a month to teach us a topic. That he will show us a film on the topic or we can do a play on the topic. That is what I like about my class

Science students, Jade

All the six student groups said that the features of classroom practice in their civic education lessons had positive impact on students' learning. Five of the six student groups particularly emphasised the benefits of classroom practice in their civic education. Those five groups included the two student groups in Lavender, the social science students' group in Cobalt and the two student groups in Jade. Students within these five groups shared similar views that the teaching methods of their civic education teachers helped them to understand the subject content. The two student groups in Jade also said that their teacher's use of illustrations during civic education lessons helped them to remember subject content. They added that the retention of subject content also helped them to achieve good grades during examinations. The science students in Jade discussed the benefits of classroom practice in their civic education lessons in the following excerpt:

(Discussing classroom practice)
M1: I think it is preferable and good. The reason is that it helps the students to understand what he has taught the students.
M2: it really makes sense to us when he teaches and when he gives examples, the examples are just like he explained the definition itself. So, when we study the examples, we will be able to say the definition in our own words. That is why the use of examples is good
M1: and during the exams, when we remember the kind of examples our teacher has given to us during the class, it will enable us to remember all that we were taught in the class. During the exams, we will also remember some things and write it down because these examples will enable us to remember.
F1 & F2: Yes

Science students, Jade

As mentioned earlier, the science students in Cobalt were the only group out of the six student groups that expressed dissatisfaction with classroom practice in their civic education lessons. Still, the science students in Cobalt admitted that some parts of their classroom experiences were beneficial for students' learning. They said that their teacher's use of illustrations during civic education lessons helped them to understand and retain subject content. Their views indicated that they approved of a few features of

classroom practice in their civic education lessons. The science students discussed the acceptable features of classroom practice in their civic educations in the following excerpt:

> (Discussing classroom experiences)
> M2: she can use someone as an example
> F1: or another country
> F2: she can use another place, country or another state as an example
> M1: I think it is good that she uses examples although during the lesson she doesn't do practical things
> F2: yes
> M1: she doesn't do practical things because she does not show us the type of the things that are related to what she is teaching. She just gives us the example that in case of this event we can understand. But we still need some practical teaching and teaching aids
> F2: I agree.

Science students, Cobalt

The following table includes a summary of the students' views on classroom practice during their civic education lessons:

SCHOOLS & STUDENT GROUPS		VIEWS ABOUT CLASSROOM PRACTICE	
		PREFERENCES FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICE	REACTIONS TO CLASSROOM PRACTICE
LAVENDER	LSGRPA	PREFER TO LISTEN TO TEACHER'S EXPLANATIONS PREFER FEWER CLASS ACTIVITIES DELIBERATE CHOICE TO LISTEN RATHER THAN ASK QUESTIONS	TEACHER'S APPROACH IS EFFICIENT IP ASSURES GOOD PERFORMANCE IN EXAMINATIONS IP IS ENJOYABLE & SUFFIICIENT
	LSGRPB	PREFER TO LISTEN TO TEACHER'S EXPLANATIONS	TEACHER'S APPROACH IS EFFICIENT IP ASSURES GOOD PERFORMANCE IN EXAMINATIONS IP IS ENJOYABLE & SUFFIICIENT
COBALT	CSGRPA	PREFER INCREASED OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENT INTERACTION AND ENGAGEMENT DURING LESSONS	FEW ASPECTS OF CLASSROOM PRACTICE ARE BENEFICIAL FOR STUDENTS' LEARNING IP IS LACKING IN STUDENT ENGAGEMENT
	CSGRPB	PREFER TO LISTEN TO TEACHER'S EXPLANATIONS DELIBERATE CHOICE TO LISTEN RATHER THAN ASK QUESTIONS	TEACHER'S APPROACH IS GOOD; CLASSROOM PRACTICE IS BENEFICIAL; HELPS STUDENTS TO UNDERSTAND SUBJECT CONTENT IP IS SUFFICIENT
JADE	JSGRPA	PREFER TO LISTEN TO TEACHER'S EXPLANATIONS & PARTICIPATE IN CLASS ACTIVITIES	TEACHER'S APPROACH IS ENGAGING & EFFICICIENT; CLASSROOM PRACTICE HELPS STUDENTS TO UNDERSTAND & RETAIN SUBJECT CONTENT; RETENTION LEADS TO GOOD PERFORMANCE IN EXAMINATIONS

	JSGRPB	PREFER TO LISTEN TO TEACHER'S EXPLANATIONS & PARTICIPATE IN CLASS ACTIVITIES	TEACHER'S APPROACH IS ENGAGING & EFFICICIENT; CLASSROOM PRACTICE HELPS STUDENTS TO UNDERSTAND & RETAIN SUBJECT CONTENT; RETENTION LEADS TO GOOD PERFORMANCE IN EXAMINATIONS

Table 6.4: students' views on classroom practice

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The six student groups shared somewhat similar reactions to the five basic features of SCI and similar dispositions to classroom practice during their civic education lessons. The six student groups shared fairly positive reactions to three out of the five basic features of SCI – the use of class activities, the use of dialogue and interaction during lessons and the opportunity for students to negotiate knowledge with their teachers. Five of the six student groups said that they were in favour of the use of class activities in their civic education lessons. Only one of the six student groups said that they would prefer fewer class activities. Also, all the six student groups said that they were in favour of the use of classroom interaction during their civic education lessons. This research finding reiterates arguments in the international literature that students are usually in favour of opportunities for student engagement during classroom learning (Lea et al., 2003). All the six student groups said that they were in favour of the opportunity to negotiate subject content with their civic education teachers. Five of the six student groups also highlighted that this was a feasible option in their civic education lessons. Only one of the six student groups insisted that their teacher's character would prevent any opportunity for students to negotiate knowledge about subject content with their civic education teacher.

The six student groups also shared unenthusiastic reactions to the other two basic features of SCI – the idea that students can be responsible for classroom learning and the interpretation of mutual respect as equal respect between teachers and their students. All the six student groups were sceptical of the idea that students can be responsible for classroom learning. The students identified relatively similar reasons why this feature of SCI would be unworkable in their civic education lessons. All the six student groups

mentioned the fact that their teachers have to complete the subject syllabus. Four out of the six student groups mentioned the fact that classroom practice is focused on their examinations, which prevents teachers from following students' preferences. Three out of the six student groups also mentioned the fact that students' preferences are often quite varied and how impractical it is for teachers to attempt to satisfy different preferences in their lessons. This research finding resonates with previous research which suggests that SCI can be rejected if it is not connected to the focus of learning in particular classrooms (Ginsburg, 2006, 2009). Especially within classroom settings where good performance in examinations is prioritised (Ginsburg, 2006). This research finding also resonates with previous research that has highlighted the links between students' preferences and their responses to SCI implementation in their classrooms (Mungoo & Moorad, 2015).

As mentioned earlier in section 6.2.1A, the students shared interpretations of mutual respect as equal respect when it implies a loss of hierarchical relations between teachers and their students. They also shared interpretations of mutual respect as reciprocated respect when it does not imply the loss of hierarchical relations between teachers and their students. All the student groups were in favour of mutual respect as long as it implies reciprocated respect between teachers and students. However, five of the six student groups indicated that they were not in favour of the notion of equal respect between teachers and their students. Five out of the six student groups said that respect for the teacher should be prioritised in student-teacher relationships. They also maintained that equal respect should not be pursued between teachers and students because there is a high potential for over-familiarity between teachers and students and this must be avoided. Such views reflected students' preference for hierarchical relationships between teachers and their students. This research finding resonates with previous research that shows that students' expectations for learning relationships and experiences can be dependent on cultural values such as hierarchical relations between adults and youths (Tabulawa, 1997). Previous research has also shown that a culture of hierarchical relations between adults and youths underlies the expectations for knowledge transfer and

communication between teachers and students, in most African and Asian communities (J. Clarke, 2010; Tabulawa, 1998).

The research findings presented in this section indicated that the selected students had their own preferences for learning, which motivated their reactions during classroom practice. Five of the six student groups said that they preferred to listen to their teachers' explanations of subject content. Even though the SSII students indicated that they were in favour of the use of class activities, they also reflected beliefs that the benefits of listening to their teacher's explanations exceeded the benefits of participation in class activities. Their views therefore indicated that their teacher's explanations can be sufficient for understanding and learning the subject content. All the six student groups indicated that they would prefer classroom practice that helps them to understand subject content and improve their grades, even if such practice essentially involves listening to the teacher's explanations. This research finding agrees with previous research that has shown that students may not necessarily have negative views of the pedagogical styles that are able to help them succeed in their examinations or relate to their expectations for learning (Lea et al., 2003; Tabulawa, 1997).

Three out of the six student groups indicated that they made deliberate choices to listen to teachers' explanations rather than ask questions during classroom practice. For instance, the science students in Lavender described the decision to listen to their teacher's explanations as a choice made because of their personal preferences for learning. Such choices enabled their teachers to remain in an information-giving role during their civic education lessons. This research finding resonates with previous research, which found that students' attitude can determine the teacher's role during classroom practice (Guthrie, 2015; Tabulawa, 1997). This research finding also reiterates previous research that has identified links between the personal beliefs of students and their reactions during classroom practice (J. Clarke, 2010; Tabulawa, 1998).

Overall, these research findings imply that the beliefs and preferences of the students, including those informed by their cultural values contributed to their reactions to the discussed features of SCI. Their personal beliefs of the students and their expectations for

learning also contributed to the reality of classroom practice during their civic education lessons.

6.3 COMPARISON OF TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' VIEWS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE AND SCI IMPLEMENTATION

The views and reactions of the civic education teachers and the six student groups are compared in this section, in order to show that both groups revealed similar dispositions to classroom practice and SCI implementation. The following account highlights the similarities between the views and reactions of the civic education teachers and their students.

As recorded in sections 6.1.1A and 6.2.1A, the civic education teacher in Lavender responded positively to three basic features of SCI – the use of class activities, classroom interaction and the opportunity for students to share different opinions on subject content. She said that these features were encouraged in her civic education lessons and they are beneficial for classroom learning. The two student groups in Lavender also shared mostly positive reactions to these three features of SCI. The social science students in Lavender said that were in favour of those three features of SCI. However, the science students said that they were in favour of only two out of the three features of SCI and maintained that they would prefer fewer occurrences of class activities during their civic education lessons. The civic education teacher in Lavender and her students had similar reactions to the other two features of SCI – the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning and the notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students. The civic education teacher and her students identified similar reasons why the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning would be unfeasible for classroom learning. The civic education teacher and her students also responded unenthusiastically to the pursuit of equal respect in student-teacher relationships.

As recorded in sections 6.1.2 and 6.2.2, the civic education teacher in Lavender implied that she had personal objectives for asking questions and encouraging students to respond

during her lessons. She admitted that the aim to correct students' thinking was achieved with the use of classroom interaction during civic education lessons. She interpreted her role as a civic education teacher to be the moral guide and role model for her students in and out of the classroom. Similarly, the two student groups in Lavender said that they made personal choices to contribute to their civic education lessons. The science students particularly emphasised the fact that they preferred and chose to listen to the teacher's explanations rather than ask questions during their civic education lessons.

As recorded in sections 6.1.1A and 6.2.1A, the civic education teacher in Cobalt responded positively to three basic features of SCI – the use of class activities, classroom interaction and the opportunity for students to share different opinions on subject content. She also said that these features were encouraged in her civic education lessons and that they would be beneficial for classroom learning. The lesson observations and the views shared by the two student groups refuted the teacher's claim that these three features were encouraged during civic education lessons in Cobalt. However, the two students' groups shared similar views with their civic education teacher that those three features would be beneficial for classroom learning. The civic education teacher in Cobalt shared unenthusiastic reactions to the other two features of SCI – the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning and the notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students. She pointed out reasons why the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning would be unfeasible for classroom learning. She also responded unenthusiastically to the pursuit of equal respect in student-teacher relationships. The two student groups also shared unenthusiastic reactions to the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning and pointed out reasons why this feature of SCI would be unfeasible for classroom learning during their civic education lessons. However, the two student groups shared different reactions to the notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students. The social science students responded unenthusiastically to the pursuit of equal respect in student-teacher relationships, while the science students maintained that their learning experiences highlighted the need for some respect between themselves and their civic education teacher.

As recorded in sections 6.1.2 and 6.2.2, the civic education teacher in Cobalt implied that she had personal objectives for giving personal advice to her students during classroom learning. She interpreted her role as a civic education teacher to be the moral guide and advisor for her students during their civic education lessons. Similarly, the two student groups in Cobalt indicated that they made personal choices to listen to their teacher's explanations. They also chose whether or not to participate in recitations and question-and-answer sessions during lessons observed by the researcher. The science students particularly said that they would have preferred regular use of class activities, suggesting that this could have motivated better student engagement in their civic education lessons.

As recorded in sections 6.1.1A and 6.2.1A, the civic education teacher in Jade responded positively to three basic features of SCI – use of class activities, classroom interaction and the opportunity for students to share different opinions on subject content. He said that these features were encouraged in his civic education lessons and that they would be beneficial for classroom learning. The two student groups in Jade also shared positive reactions to those three features of SCI. Both student groups said that were in favour of those three features of SCI and that those features would be beneficial for classroom learning. The civic education teacher in Jade and his students also had similar reactions to the other two features of SCI – the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning and the notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students. The civic education teacher and his students identified similar reasons why the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning would be unfeasible for classroom learning. Both parties held similar views that this feature of SCI interferes with the teacher's responsibility in the classroom. The civic education teacher and his students also showed unenthusiastic reactions to the pursuit of equal respect in student-teacher relationships.

As recorded in section 6.1.2 and 6.2.2, the civic education teacher in Jade implied that he had personal objectives for asking questions and initiating whole-class discussions during his lessons. He particularly mentioned that his approach to teaching was motivated by a civic sense of duty. He also admitted that his aim to correct the students' thinking was achieved through classroom interaction. The two student groups in Jade matched their teacher's outlook by indicating preference for the teaching methods used during their civic

education lessons. The two student groups indicated that they were in favour of the use of class activities, the teacher's explanations, the teacher's use of illustrations and classroom interaction during their civic education lessons.

The following table includes a summary of the reactions of the civic education teachers and their students to the five basic features of SCI:

FEATURES OF SCI	SCHOOL	TEACHERS VIEWS	SCIENCE STUDENTS	SOCIAL STUDENTS
THE USE OF CLASS ACTIVITIES	LAVENDER	Existing in classroom practice & beneficial	Existing in classroom practice & beneficial but not preferred	Existing in classroom practice & beneficial
	COBALT	Existing in CP & beneficial	Not existing in CP, but beneficial & preferred	Not existing in CP, but beneficial & preferred
	JADE	Existing in CP & beneficial	Existing in CP, beneficial & preferred	Existing in CP, beneficial & preferred
DIALOGUE & INTERACTION	LAVENDER	Available through Q&A, beneficial	Available in Q&A, beneficial but needs to be regulated	Available in Q&A, beneficial but needs to be regulated
	COBALT	Available in Q&A, beneficial	Available in Q&A, beneficial but needs to be regulated	Available in Q&A, beneficial but needs to be regulated
	JADE	Existing in CP, beneficial	Existing in CP, beneficial but needs to be regulated	Existing in CP, beneficial but needs to be regulated
SHARING DIFFERENT OPINIONS	LAVENDER	Existing in CP & beneficial	Existing in CP & beneficial	Existing in CP & beneficial
	COBALT	Existing in CP & beneficial	Not existing in CP, beneficial but not feasible	Beneficial & preferred
	JADE	Existing in CP & beneficial	Existing in CP & beneficial	Existing in CP & beneficial
STUDENTS' RESPONSIBILITY FOR LEARNING	LAVENDER	Not feasible – limited by school factors & conflicts with culture	Not feasible – limited by school factors	Not feasible – limited by school factors
	COBALT	Not feasible – limited by school factors & conflicts with culture	Not feasible – limited by school factors	Not feasible – limited by school factors
	JADE	Not feasible – limited by school factors & conflicts with culture	Not feasible – limited by school factors & conflicts with teacher's responsibility	Not feasible – limited by school factors & conflicts with teacher's responsibility
MUTUAL RESPECT	LAVENDER	Respect is reciprocal – but respect for adult-teacher is the priority	Respect is reciprocal – but respect for adult-teacher is the priority	Respect is reciprocal – but respect for adult-teacher is the priority
	COBALT	Respect is reciprocal – but respect for adult-teacher is the priority	Respect is not reciprocated – mutual respect is essential	Respect is reciprocal – but respect for adult-teacher is the priority
	JADE	Respect is reciprocal – but respect for adult-teacher is the priority	Respect is reciprocal – but respect for adult-teacher is the priority	Respect is reciprocal – but respect for adult-teacher is the priority

Table 6.5: comparison of teachers' and students' reactions to SCI

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The research findings related to RQIII and RQIV have been presented in this chapter to show that the reactions of teachers and students to five basic features of SCI and their views about classroom practice in their civic education lessons were motivated by their beliefs and preferences. In relation to RQIII, the reactions of the three civic education teachers to five basic features of SCI showed support for the use of class activities, classroom interaction and opportunities for students to share different opinions during classroom learning. The reactions of the teachers also showed rejection of the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning and the possibility of equal respect between teachers and their students, and highlighted how these two features of SCI contradicts their cultural values. The views shared by the teachers also revealed links between classroom practice and the teachers' personal beliefs such as personal objectives for learning and personal interpretations of the responsibilities involved in teaching civic education; and the links between classroom practice and the teachers' preferences for teaching and learning. In relation to RQIV, the students' reactions to five basic features of SCI showed support for the use of class activities, regulated use of classroom interaction and the opportunity for student to share different opinions during classroom learning. The reactions of the students to SCI also showed rejection of the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning and the possibility of equal respect between teachers and their students. Moreover, there were some indications in the students' views that unenthusiastic reactions to these two features of SCI were informed by the cultural values of their local community. The interpretations drawn from the research findings presented in the previous chapter and this chapter will be discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter VII – Discussion

INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the discussion of the research findings presented in chapters 5 and 6. This discussion highlights the researcher's interpretation of the research findings, as informed by international literature around LCE reform. The chapter begins with a short overview of the research findings, which recalls the key points from the research account in Chapters 5 and 6. The interpretations of the research findings are presented in the following section. This account addresses the assumptions about learning experiences in Nigerian secondary schools as discussed in chapter 3, by explaining the implication and giving meaning to the observed classroom practices across the three schools. It also provides an explanation for the discovered links between the beliefs and preferences of teachers and students and their classroom practices, in the research findings. A research framework that illustrates the research findings is discussed and presented in the final section of this chapter. The framework is also used to highlight the different levels of impact that contextual factors and culturally-informed beliefs have on SCI implementation in two public and one private secondary school in Nigeria.

7.1 KEY FINDINGS

The findings of this research were presented in chapters 5 and 6 in response to the four research questions that informed the study. The account in chapter 5 described five contextual or school-related factors that influenced SCI implementation across the selected schools in order to address the first research question.

RQI – What contextual factors influence SCI implementation within three secondary schools in Nigeria?

The research findings related to RQI revealed that low awareness of SCI, lack of in-service teacher training with an emphasis on SCI, poor classroom and learning conditions, an examination-driven orientation to learning, and a hierarchical school culture were

limitations to SCI implementation in the selected public secondary schools. The same limitations with the exception of poor classroom and learning conditions were observed in the selected private secondary school. As mentioned earlier in chapter 5, it is important to note that the 'good' classroom and learning conditions in the selected private secondary school cannot be compared to the classroom and learning conditions in western schools. These research findings were used to argue that the selected public and private secondary schools were to different degrees, ill-equipped and hardly motivated for the implementation of LCE reform in Nigeria. This research finding reiterates previous research, which indicate that contextual factors can influence SCI implementation in developing countries (Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, 2011; Barrett, 2007; Ginsburg, 2006).

The account in chapter 5 also described the reality of classroom practice in the observed civic education lessons across the three schools in order to address the second research question.

RQII – What are the features of classroom practice within the observed civic education lessons in the selected schools?

The research findings related to RQII revealed that the classroom practices across the three schools typically involved a routine structure for lessons, teacher's recurring explanations, teacher's use of examples, and right-answerism. The scope of activities across the different classrooms included recitations and question-and-answer sessions, but whole-class discussions were also observed during civic education lessons in Jade. The actions of the teachers during their civic education lessons included presenting subject content, deciding the lesson structure and initiating class activities. While the actions of students included listening to the teacher's explanations and contributing when prompted by the teacher. These research findings were used to argue that the local translations of SCI were only fulfilled to a considerable extent in one out of the three schools. The research findings related to RQII were also used to argue that the features of classroom practices observed across the three schools resonated more with teacher-centred instruction rather than SCI. These research findings indicated that none of the observed civic education lessons matched the adequate translations of SCI in the international

literature. This research finding reiterates previous research, which shows that teacher-centred instruction has remained prevalent in developing countries even after the introduction of LCE reform (Brinkmann, 2015; Guro & Weber, 2010; Sikoyo, 2010; Sunzuma et al., 2012).

The account in chapter 6 presented the views of the civic education teachers and their students on SCI implementation and classroom practice in their civic education lessons. It also discussed the implications of those views. The first section of chapter 6 presented the views that the selected teachers held about five basic features of SCI and classroom practice in their civic education lessons in order to address the third research question.

RQIII – What are the perspectives of selected civic education teachers on classroom practices during their civic education lessons and SCI implementation?

The research findings related to RQIII revealed that the selected teachers had positive or negative reactions to different features of SCI. These reactions were based on the personal beliefs and preferences of the civic education teachers, including those informed by their cultural values. In other words, the selected civic education teachers were in favour of the features of SCI that matched their personal beliefs and preferences for classroom practice and did not contradict their cultural values. They were less enthusiastic about features of SCI that did not match their personal beliefs and preferences for classroom practice and contradicted their cultural values. The research findings related to RQIII also revealed that the personal beliefs of the civic education teachers were prioritised above the instructions of the civic education syllabus, in making decisions about classroom practice.

The second section in Chapter 6 presented a similar version of the account in the first section, with focus on the selected students. The views shared by the selected SSII students during focus groups were presented in order to address the fourth research question.

RQIV – what are the views of selected students on SCI and classroom practice during their civic education lessons?

The research findings related to RQIV revealed that the selected students had positive or negative reactions to different features of SCI. Those reactions were based on their preferences for learning and beliefs about what is feasible in their civic education lessons. Some of the students' views and reactions towards the different features of SCI were also based on personal beliefs informed by their cultural values. In other words, the student groups were in favour of the features of SCI that matched their preferences for learning and classroom practice and did not contradict their cultural values. They were less enthusiastic about features of SCI that did not match their personal beliefs and preferences for classroom practice and contradicted their cultural values. This research finding reiterates previous research, which identified links between students' beliefs and learning preferences and their reactions to SCI (Elen et al., 2007; Mac An Ghaill, 1992). The research findings related to RQIV also revealed that most of the students considered classroom practice in their civic education lessons to be sufficient for their learning. The interpretations of the overall findings of this research are discussed in the following section.

7.2 INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

7.2.1 CLASSROOM PRACTICE IS NOT ENTIRELY RESOURCE-DEPENDENT IN NIGERIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

As described earlier in Chapter 3, one of the key assumptions around the current state of classroom practice in Nigeria is that engaging classroom practices such as SCI would be easier to implement within well-resourced private secondary schools. This theory that classroom practice in Nigerian schools is entirely resource-dependent came through the local literature, which promoted private schools as well funded schools that would be able to provide suitable school and classroom conditions for learning and find it easier to manage different aspects of learning, than most public schools (Ekundayo & Alonge, 2012). The research findings presented in Chapter 5 however, provide an alternative viewpoint to this theory.

The research findings related to RQI showed that the selected private secondary school had better classroom and learning conditions than the selected public secondary schools. Those classroom and learning conditions included the physical state of the classroom, seating provisions and arrangements, class size or teacher to pupil ratio, and the teachers' workload. However, the research findings related to RQII also revealed that the least-resourced public secondary school provided more opportunities for engaging classroom practice than the well-resourced private secondary school. Such research findings indicated that classroom and learning conditions may have contributed to, but they were not the major deciding factor for classroom practice within the selected secondary schools.

The civic education teachers were expected to follow the instructions of the civic education syllabus in order to show that they were fulfilling the local translations of LCE reform. However, only few of those instructions were followed in the well-resourced private secondary school - Lavender. None of the instructions were followed in the fairly-resourced public secondary school – Cobalt. Whereas, most of the instructions were followed in the least-resourced public secondary school – Jade. In this way, the least-resourced public secondary school was the only one out of the three schools that fulfilled the local translations of SCI to a considerable extent. The research findings presented in Chapter 5 therefore suggested that engaging classroom practices may not be entirely resource-dependent in Nigerian secondary schools.

7.2.2 CLASSROOM PRACTICE IS FORMALISTIC, NOT MORE LEARNER-CENTRED WITHIN NIGERIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

As described earlier in Chapter 2, there is a need to define observed classroom practice after the introduction of LCE reform in different countries. Such definitions are necessary because they indicate whether or not the objectives of LCE reform have been achieved in classroom settings. Observed classroom practices following LCE reform in developing countries have been mostly defined as more learner-centred, based on arguments that lessons have become more engaging with an increase in classroom interaction and the use

of classroom activities. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, the definition of observed classroom practices as more learner-centred is because such classroom practices reflect some features of LCE but cannot be defined as learner-centred 'in every respect' (Croft, 2002; O'Sullivan, 2004). There is an alternative viewpoint, which suggests that defining observed classroom practices following LCE reform as more learner-centred often denies that the underlying values to the actions observed in the classroom are not constructivist (Guthrie et al., 2015). In other words, it is an invalid interpretation to claim that observed classroom practices are more learner-centred if the underlying principles the observed actions and events do not reflect the constructivist basis and features of LCE.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, the definition of observed classroom practices following LCE reform can be determined with the following indicators:

- the activities allowed during a lesson,
- the role of the teacher,
- the students' responsibility in the classroom,
- the nature of student-teacher relationships, and
- The principles that inform classroom practice.

Based on these indicators, the observed classroom practices in this study are not defined as more learner-centred. The research findings presented in Chapter 5 revealed that the observed civic education lessons **comprised** of whole-class teaching of a fixed syllabus, the teacher's recurring explanations, recitations, question-and-answer sessions, the teacher's use of illustrations, and the desire for the right answers when students respond to the teacher's questions. The observed classroom practices also featured few occurrences of class activities in two out of the three secondary schools, and frequent use of class activities including whole class discussions in one out of the three secondary schools. These **features of classroom practice** however resonated with teacher-centred rather than learner/student-centred instruction. This is because such features sustained the teacher's control over the knowledge-acquisition process, reinforced the teacher's stance as the more experienced person and capable advice-giver in the classroom, and placed the teacher in a dominant position during classroom interaction (Tabulawa, 1998).

The research findings presented in Chapter 5 revealed that the civic education teachers were in control of the knowledge acquisition process and the pace of learning during the observed lessons. In other words, the civic education teachers took over the main responsibilities for classroom learning. They presented the subject content, made the primary decisions for learning, and initiated all of the class activities. The responsibilities and contributions of the students during classroom learning were minimal compared to their teachers. The students were positioned as recipients of their teachers' knowledge. The contributions of the students to the observed lessons were also limited because they were dependent on the teachers' questions and prompts. The **described role and responsibilities of the civic education teachers and their students** reflected teacher-centred rather than learner/student-centred instruction. The research findings presented in Chapter 5 also revealed the existence of hierarchical student-teacher relationships within the three schools and manifestations of such relationships during classroom learning. As mentioned earlier, the civic education teachers dominated classroom learning by controlling the flow of information, regulating all classroom activities and controlling the classroom behaviour of their students. The students followed the authority of their teachers by contributing to the lesson according to the teacher's instruction. They also accepted their teacher's decisions for classroom learning and activities. The described **nature of student-teacher relationships** in the observed civic education lessons also resonated with teacher-centred rather than learner/student-centred instruction.

The observed classroom practices in this study are defined as formalistic/teacher-centred based on the research findings summarised above. Formalistic teaching according to Guthrie (2011) primarily includes teacher's explanations, but it also allows variations in classroom practice through a level of classroom interaction and student involvement, and it reflects an hierarchical relationship between the teacher and the students. The formalistic approach to teaching is also reflected when all of the activities and events during classroom practice are informed by beliefs that knowledge consists of valid truths, which are transmitted from the teacher to the learner (Guthrie et al., 2015). This teaching model resonates with the classroom practice observed during civic education lessons across the three schools. The observed classroom practices in this study are considered to

be indicative of formalistic teaching because they leave the teacher in firm control of the learning experiences within the selected classrooms (Guthrie, 2011). They are not defined as more learner-centred because they do not reflect the constructivist principles and values that underlie SCI, such as: (a) the requirement that the teacher should be a facilitator rather than a presenter of knowledge, (b) the belief that knowledge is made up of 'social constructs' rather than valid truths, and (c) the requirement that students should be co-constructors of knowledge with their teachers rather than recipients of the teacher's knowledge during classroom learning (O'Neill & McMahon, 2005; Tabulawa, 1998; Taylor, 1990). See Chapter 2 for more detail about the differences between the theories of knowledge that inform teacher-centred instruction and SCI.

Some of the observed classroom practices in this study included similar features to the classroom practices that were defined as 'learning-centred' or said to be indicative of the 'performance mode of pedagogy' in the international literature (Barrett, 2007; Sriprakash, 2010). The 'learning-centred' label was used to describe classroom practices in Namibian schools that seemed to have transitioned halfway between teacher-centred and learner-centred (O'Sullivan, 2004). In the author's words, 'learning-centred' instruction combined direct instruction and active teaching, where the former allowed the teacher to have control over learning experiences and classroom interaction and the latter allowed the students to participate in recurrent question-and-answer sessions and/or whole class discussions (O'Sullivan, 2004). The 'performance mode of pedagogy' was derived from the Basil Bernstein's theories on educational codes (Barrett, 2007; Sriprakash, 2010). It was also used to explain the observed classroom practices during LCE reform that simultaneously reflected elements of teacher-centred and learner-centred instruction. In a study of LCE reform in Tanzanian schools, Barrett (2007) explained that a combined use of whole-class teaching, recitations, and participative strategies such as question-and-answer sessions and class activities during observed lessons amounted to the performance mode of pedagogy. The two terms or labels were not used to describe observed classroom practices in this study because they only explain the actions observed in a classroom setting. The definition of observed classroom practices in this study as

formalistic however takes into account the actions observed in a classroom setting as well as the underlying values that inform such actions and events.

7.2.3 THE CULTURALLY-INFORMED BELIEFS OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS INFLUENCE REACTIONS TO SCI IMPLEMENTATION AND CLASSROOM PRACTICE IN NIGERIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

As described earlier in Chapter 2, cultural values and beliefs can influence LCE implementation in different countries. They include cultural beliefs and values about:

- the nature of knowledge and how knowledge should be acquired
- the roles and responsibilities of teachers and students in a learning environment, and
- the nature of learning relationships

Such cultural values and beliefs can be reflected within the pedagogical or classroom practices that follow the introduction of LCE reform (Tabulawa, 1998). Cultural values and beliefs can also influence the views and reactions that education stakeholders have towards the implementation of SCI (Brinkmann, 2015).

The overall findings of this research indicate that the cultural values and beliefs of the local community culture contributed to **the reality of classroom practice** in the observed civic education lessons across the three schools. The research findings presented in Chapter 5 revealed that the teacher's explanation was the primary means of transferring and gaining knowledge during the observed civic education lessons. Similarly, the research findings presented in chapter 6 revealed that the civic education teachers were positioned as the custodians and experts of knowledge during the observed lessons. Such actions and dispositions to classroom practice can be explained by beliefs in a realist epistemology, which embodies the view that knowledge is independent of the knower and can be transmitted from one person to another during learning experiences (Taylor, 1990). As described earlier in Chapter 2, the realist epistemology underlies teacher-centred and formalistic instruction where teachers act as the custodians of knowledge, experts on subject content, and role models for their students (Guthrie, 2015; Tabulawa, 1998). This

realist epistemology is synonymous with the 'revelatory epistemologies' that are found in African communities and cultures (Guthrie et al., 2015).

Revelatory epistemologies hold that important knowledge comes from deities, ancestors and elders (Guthrie et al., 2015; Omolewa, 2007). This means that all important knowledge is expected to be passed on or transferred from the elders in African communities (Boateng, 1983). It also means that there is an expectation for knowledge to transmitted and received during learning experiences (Avoseh, 2013). Such culturally-informed expectations and beliefs provide an explanation for the positioning of the civic education teachers. They also provide an explanation for the students' views that they prefer to listen to the teacher's explanations during the observed civic education lessons. The science students in Lavender said that students should ultimately 'listen in the class' because when 'she [the teacher] is explaining, she just says it all'. Such views reflect beliefs that knowledge is a commodity that is delivered by the teacher, and ought to be received by the students (Tabulawa, 1998). They also correspond with the revelatory epistemologies that are observable in the Nigerian socio-cultural context. Culturally-informed beliefs in an objective reality can also explain the teacher's search for and endorsement of, "right answers" during their civic education lessons. The realist epistemology embodies the notion that knowledge can be independent of the knower and apprehendable as a valid truth (Benton & Craib, 2001). This principle is also embodied in the revelatory epistemologies of African cultures, which hold that the knowledge passed down from ancestors or elders is the truth or that it is valid knowledge.

The cultural values and beliefs of the local community culture also contributed to the views and reactions of the teachers and students towards **SCI implementation**. The research findings presented in Chapter 6 revealed that the civic education teachers and the six student groups had relatively positive reactions to three basic features of SCI that matched their personal beliefs and preferences for learning. Those three features of SCI include the use of class activities, the use of dialogue and interaction in classroom learning and the opportunity for students to negotiate subject content with their teachers. The civic education teachers and their students suggested through their views that SCI implementation would be feasible for classroom practices during their civic education

lessons as long as it embodies these three features. Such reactions would suggest that the teachers and students were open to LCE reform in the Nigerian educational context. However, detailed analysis of data indicates that such reactions can be 'false impressions' of openness to LCE reform. This is because the culturally-informed beliefs and expectations of the civic education teachers and their students were in actual fact discordant with the underlying beliefs to SCI (P. Clarke, 2003).

For example, the civic education teachers and the six student groups had positive reactions to the use of dialogue and interaction and the use of class activities, as two basic features of SCI. Such dispositions can be explained by the fact that they correspond with the values and expectations for learning in the local community culture. Arguments from the international literature have highlighted that there is a tendency for different communities to associate positively with, and easily adapt to ideas that are already rooted in their traditional cultures (Hofstede, 1986). As described earlier in Chapter 3, **openness to interaction** is consistent with the learning methods used in Nigerian education since the traditional era. The local literature around traditional education in Nigeria records that communication or interaction between the teacher and the learner was allowed to some extent during learning experiences (Moffet, 1968; Shrigley, 1969). The adult-teacher had the authority in the socio-cultural context to invite the learner to share their thoughts or ask questions about a topic or issue, and the younger person or student was expected to respond to the elder's prompts and questions. In this case, the questions were intended to generate right answers from the students. The elders were also expected to confirm the right answer and have the final word on the comments received during such discussions (Omolewa, 2007). Such practice has been sustained within formal and informal learning environments in Nigeria. They also resonate with the features of the observed civic education lessons in this study, such as recitations, questions and answer sessions, whole-class discussions in Jade and right-answerism in the three schools.

Similarly, **openness to class activities** is consistent with the learning methods used in Nigerian education since the traditional era. The local literature records that apprenticeships and skills training during the traditional era in Nigerian encouraged activity during learning experiences (M Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2003). Apprentices and

unskilled students were trained to observe, imitate and practice what their teachers taught them (McDowell, 1980). There are common arguments in the local literature that 'learning by doing' reduced after the introduction of missionary education to Nigeria (Shizha, 2013). However, there are also arguments that the concept of learning by doing in indigenous education simply transformed into "watching, copying, memorizing, reciting, doing, and performing" the teacher's instructions within the formal education system (McDowell, 1980, p. 55). Such practice has been sustained in learning environments since the colonial era. The previously mentioned activities also resonate with the scope of class activities and the actions of teachers and students that were recorded during the observed civic education lessons in this study. Examples include frequent occurrence of recitations, and a process where the civic education teachers initiated all the class activities and the students followed their instructions. This analysis highlights the underlying cultural values to the use of classroom interaction and classroom activities in the selected schools and indicates that the civic education teachers and their students were actually open to features of formalistic/teacher-centred approaches to instruction, rather than the features of SCI or LCE reform.

The underlying traces of cultural beliefs were also evident in the views and reactions of the civic education teachers and the six student groups to the two other basic features of SCI. The civic education teachers and their students suggested different reasons why the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning is not feasible for classroom practice during their civic education lessons. However, the research findings presented in chapter 6 indicated that culturally-informed values for learning contributed to their unenthusiastic reactions to this feature of SCI. For example, the civic education teacher in Lavender said that "in Nigeria … they believe that adults know all and they know what is best for you. That is Nigerian mentality." This comment reflects beliefs that increased students' responsibility in learning contradicts the cultural values of the local community. The cultural beliefs of African communities expects student-teacher relationships to mirror the relationships between parents and children in the family and the relationships between adults and youths in the community (Omolewa, 2007). Such relationships are hierarchical and they permit the elder/adult to be in charge of the younger person and

make decisions on their behalf (M Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2003) It is also expected that the younger person will submit to the elder/adult and follow their decisions (M Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002; Boateng, 1983; Omolewa, 2007). Such cultural beliefs provide an explanation for the unenthusiastic reactions of the civic education teachers and their students to the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning.

Similarly, the civic education teachers and their students shared mixed reactions to the notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students. The civic education teachers and their students indicated that they were open to the notion of mutual respect as long as it implies 'reciprocated respect', which does not disallow hierarchical relations between teachers and their students. At the same time, the views and reactions of the civic education teachers and their students reflected disapproval of the notion of mutual respect when it implies 'equal respect' and disallows hierarchical relations between teachers and students. The research findings presented in Chapter 6 highlighted the link between the cultural values of the civic education teachers and their students and their reactions to this feature of SCI. For example, the civic education teacher in Lavender said that "… it's about value system … that adults should be respected and students should be at the receiving end … even teachers know that we ought to respect students, but sometimes we say I'm your teacher, I demand respect from you because I'm an adult." This comment reflects interpretations of mutual respect as equal respect and beliefs that the pursuit of equal respect contradicts the cultural values of the local community. As mentioned earlier, the cultural values of African communities promote hierarchical relationships between adult-teachers and young-learners (Brinkmann, 2015; Schweisfurth, 2011). Such cultural beliefs provide an explanation for the reactions of the civic education teachers and their students towards the notion of mutual respect.

Overall, the research findings presented in Chapter 6 correspond with arguments in the international literature that cultural beliefs can shape the expectations that teachers and students have for their learning experiences, and consequently determine their reactions to LCE implementation (Brinkmann, 2015).

7.3 THE EMERGING PICTURE: A RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

The interpretations of the research findings presented in Chapters 5 and 6, highlighted the different factors that contributed to the context realities of SCI implementation within two public and one private secondary school in Nigeria. The conceptual framework in Chapter 2 drew from literature around LCE transfer to identify the different factors that can influence or limit the process of SCI implementation in developing countries. In Chapters 5 and 6, the research findings indicated that seven factors contributed to the context realities of SCI implementation across the three schools. Those seven factors include: stakeholders' awareness of LCE reform, availability of in-service teacher training, classroom and learning conditions, examination orientation, school culture, the beliefs and preferences of teachers and students and the culturally-informed beliefs and preferences of teachers and students.

The evidence from RQI – IV and the discussion in this chapter has modified the original framework by comparing the level of impact that these different factors had on classroom practice and SCI implementation. The discussion in this Chapter has shown that the seven factors had different levels of impact. In Chapter 5, five contextual or school-related factors – stakeholders' awareness of LCE reform, availability of in-service teacher training, classroom and learning conditions, examination orientation, and school culture were identified as limitations to SCI implementation. This means that those five factors had some level of impact on the classroom practice and SCI implementation. However, the research findings presented in Chapters 5 and 6 suggested that the impact of those five factors did not equal the impact of the beliefs and preferences of the teachers and students on classroom practice and SCI implementation. The overall research findings indicated that the culturally-informed beliefs and preferences of the teachers and their students were the main influences on classroom practice related to SCI implementation, within the three schools. This interpretation is illustrated in the following diagram.

The picture highlights: the links between the seven factors and SCI implementation, the links between cultural values and the beliefs and preferences of teachers and students,

and the different levels of influence that those seven factors had on the observed classroom practices within the three schools.

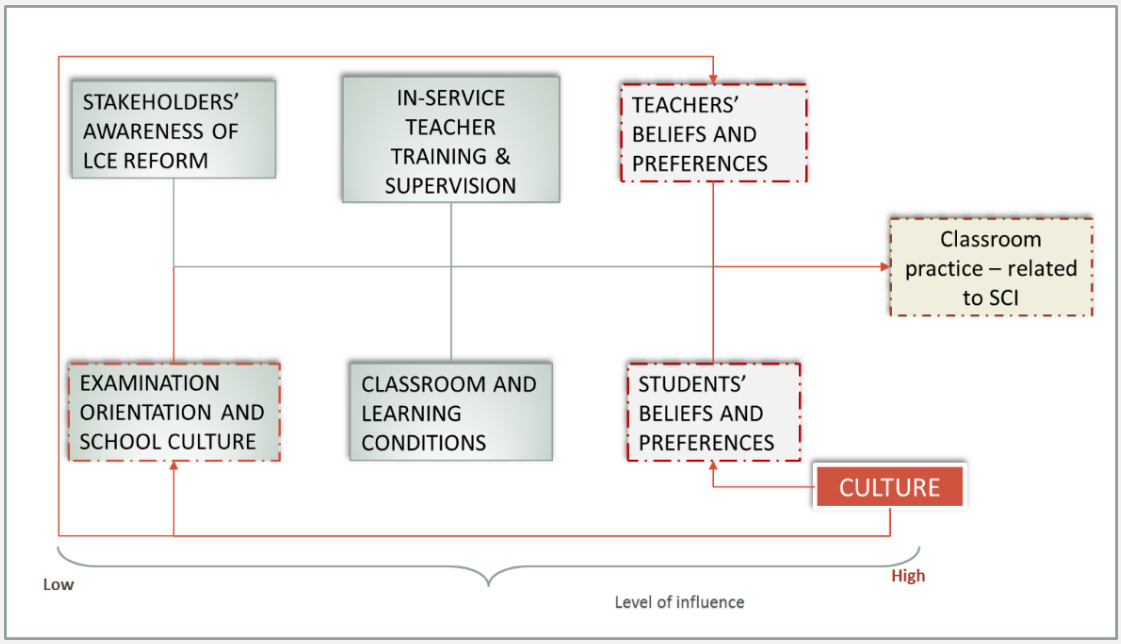

Figure 7.1: Influences on classroom practice and SCI implementation

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The researcher's interpretations of the findings of this research have been discussed in this Chapter to highlight the factors that influenced classroom practice and SCI implementation in three Nigerian secondary schools. The researcher's interpretations have also been used to define the observed classroom practices across the three schools. The key interpretations of the research findings included the understanding that classroom practice was not entirely resource-dependent in the selected public and private secondary schools. This interpretation was based on the observation that the classroom practice was the most engaging in Jade – the school with the poorest classroom and learning conditions. Another interpretation of the research findings was that classroom practice across the three schools should be defined as formalistic/teacher-centred rather than more learner-centred. This interpretation was based on the observation that the features of classroom practice and the beliefs underlying the actions of teachers and students across the three schools corresponded to a greater extent with formalistic instruction instead of SCI. Another interpretation of the research findings was that the beliefs and preferences of the civic education teachers and their students that were informed by their cultural values, had significant influence on their reported views of classroom practice related to SCI. This interpretation was based on – the observed links between the expressed beliefs and preferences of the civic education teachers and their students and their actions during classroom practice, as well as the observed links between the expressed beliefs and preferences of the civic education teachers and their students and their views and reactions to the basic features of SCI. These interpretations reiterate arguments in the international literature that different factors can influence SCI implementation across different countries. The implications of this research and the limitations of the research evidence will be discussed in the next and concluding Chapter of this thesis.

Chapter VIII – Conclusion

INTRODUCTION

This study was conducted to explore the context realities of SCI implementation within three secondary schools in Nigeria. It has shown through an analytic review of local literature that there is currently insufficient research around LCE reform in Nigeria. It has also called attention to the observation that the local literature has generated and sustained a number of assumptions about the reality of classroom practice in Nigerian schools. This study responds to the recent curriculum reform in Nigeria with the view that it represents uncritical transfer of LCE to the education system. This study therefore contributes to local literature by generating an arguably more critical account of LCE reform in Nigeria. This Chapter highlights the implications of this study for theoretical literature and education reform in Nigeria. An account of the limitations of the study is also included in order to emphasise that the research journey is a learning process that is subject to human error and limitations. This Chapter ends with a few suggestions for future research around education reform in Nigeria.

8.1 CONTRIBUTIONS TO EXISTING KNOWLEDGE

This study adds research evidence from Nigeria to a growing database of educational research on LCE reform developing countries. This is original because the existing research on the introduction of LCE reform in Nigeria is currently insufficient and lacks methodological rigour to advance knowledge about the challenges of curriculum reform. Previous studies have only focused on promoting oversimplified translations of SCI and advocating LCE reform as a cure-all solution to the problems within the educational system. This study addresses the gap by re-defining the standards of LCE reform in the local literature and contributing to research evidence on some of the factors that limit and shape SCI implementation within secondary schools in Nigeria. The influence of such factors was depicted within a conceptual framework in Chapter 7. The framework was generated from research analysis and it can be seen as a model to reflect on the challenges

of LCE reform in Nigeria and other developing countries. It does not suggest that all observations are true and universal to all other countries. Instead, it offers an alternative viewpoint to the discourse of LCE transfer to different educational systems.

Existing research around LCE reform in local and international literature has also been lacking in evidence on the reactions of students to SCI implementation in their classrooms (Schweisfurth, 2011). Previous studies have mostly focused on the views and reactions of teachers, parents and policy makers to LCE reform and constant changes in curriculum reform. This study has argued that the views of students and their teachers are essential because they are the most directly involved in and affected by curriculum reform. It has contributed to research evidence in local and international literature by presenting the views of selected students on the context realities of SCI implementation in Nigerian schools.

8.2 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Implications for theoretical literature

There are increasing doubts and concerns in the international literature about the appropriateness of LCE transfer to developing countries. It would be an exaggeration to claim that this small-scale study can contribute significantly to current debates around LCE transfer to developing countries. However, it does add to research evidence that contextual factors and the culturally-informed beliefs and preferences of teachers and students shape the implementation of LCE reform in different countries. Some researchers have suggested that the impact of low-resourced contexts and cultural beliefs on LCE reform can be negotiated by adapting its principles and features to individual or local educational systems (O'Sullivan, 2004; Schweisfurth, 2013a; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012). As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, contingent and minimum standards for LCE across developing countries have also been presented in the international literature (Schweisfurth, 2013a). However, the findings of this research revealed that the local translations of SCI in Nigerian secondary schools were not achieved in classroom practice even though such translations did not in themselves, match up to the 'minimum standards'

for LCE reform. This research finding raises doubts about whether or not there is a need for continued advocacy for LCE reform when even the minimum standards appear to be unachievable.

This study therefore reiterates arguments in the international literature that researchers and policy makers should reconsider how far LCE can or should be compromised for the sake of contextualisation (Guthrie et al., 2015). A scan of international literature related to LCE revealed that contextual factors and cultural values have been 'unrelenting' constraints to progressive education reform in developing countries since the early 1980s to date. Given these circumstances, it is important to consider an alternative solution to concerns around educational quality in developing countries, including Nigeria. This study agrees to the recommendation that 'formalism should replace progressivism as the primary frame of reference for classroom change in contexts where it is appropriate' (Guthrie, 2016, p. 12). Progressive education reform has been ineffectually advocated as an ideal for a long period of time in contexts where contextual factors and cultural values deny the realisation of its principles (Vavrus & Bartlett, 2012). This unpromising situation can be reviewed by seeking to improve classroom practice and educational quality through formalistic or teacher-led instruction in countries where contextual factors and cultural values have remained unyielding to the ideas of LCE reform (Guthrie, 2016).

It is also important to note consider how the findings of this research highlight trending discourses about the impact of global league tables and international testing on education systems. Both teachers and students described student achievement in examinations as a priority in their learning experiences. This reiterates previous arguments in international literature that exam-orientations in learning are a constraint to the implementation of SCI. However, it also highlights the broader impact that the move towards global competitiveness in education would have on learning within schools in developing countries. In other words, recent trends in international policy such as the growing impact of international testing can only compound the examination-driven culture within schools in different countries (Crossley et al., 2017). The cautionary note for policy makers in this discourse is highlighted within comparative education (Crossley, 2014; Forestier & Crossley, 2015). The key argument is that there should be increased sensitivity to cultural

and contextual differences around policy borrowing, especially that which draws from international assessment to advocate a global standard of 'best practices' in education (Crossley et al., 2017, p. 16)

Implications for education reform in Nigeria

The findings of this research have challenged the underlying assumptions to advocating LCE reform in Nigeria. As discussed in Chapter 3, they include notions that classroom practice in secondary schools is teacher-centred in the sense that it denies any opportunity for class activities, interaction and student involvement. This notion was challenged by the research findings that class activities and interaction were available to different degrees during the lessons observed by the researcher. Another assumption is that private secondary schools with good classroom and learning conditions would be better placed for SCI implementation than public secondary schools. As discussed earlier in Chapter 3, this assumption is based on widespread beliefs in the local literature that educational quality in Nigerian schools is entirely resource-dependent. This notion was challenged by research findings that the school with the poorest classroom and learning conditions in this study provided more opportunities for student involvement in classroom practice than the school with the best classroom and learning conditions. This study has argued that inaccurate depictions of the current state of the Nigerian education system are publicised through the opinions of so-called experts of the education system and presented as facts in many academic articles. This study has pointed out the need to test the assumptions about the current state of education in Nigeria through credible and empirical research.

As discussed earlier, this study highlights the concerns around advocacy for LCE reform in the Nigerian education system. This includes the observation that the researchers and policy makers who advocate LCE do not mention the challenges that are likely to occur during its implementation. This is a concern because unpreparedness for the challenges of LCE reform would naturally result in unsuccessful implementation. It also means that funds allocated for education reform would have been inefficient in the long run. Another observation is that LCE reform is being publicised as the means to improve student

achievement in national examinations. The problem with this narrative is that it narrows down the focus of educational research and interventions to teaching methods only, which may eliminate the need to examine other factors that can contribute to the declining rates of student achievement. Another problem with this narrative is that there is no conclusive evidence that SCI in itself can improve student scores in national examinations. As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, some research studies in the local literature have suggested that the application of single 'SCI' strategies through quasi-experimental research designs can improve student scores in a test or examination. However, such studies have so far presented conclusions that are compromised by methodological limitations in their research design. Besides, there is no conclusive evidence in many studies of LCE reform that the changes observed within student performance after the use of some SCI strategy will be sustained in the long run (Guthrie, 2016). This study has taken a critical approach to investigating SCI implementation in order to point out the need to reconsider uncritical narratives in the advocacy for LCE reform in Nigerian schools.

8.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study has explored the classroom practice related to SCI within three secondary schools in Nigeria and reports the views of civic education teachers and their students on SCI implementation. This section reviews the limitations that became evident in the research design in order to enhance the authenticity and credibility of this study. It is important to mention here that this research journey has been quite transformative. Even though this section highlights some of the challenges that the researcher encountered during the research process, the intention is to point out that the process of doing research enabled my growth from a naïve inquirer at the beginning of this research into a much more informed and able researcher.

As discussed earlier in Chapter 4, the researcher planned to ask indirect questions about curriculum reform during interviews with the school administrators and the civic education teachers. This idea was proposed as a means to facilitate honest responses to interview

questions. The researcher anticipated that the interviewees might exaggerate the contents of learning experiences. As discussed in Chapter 4, during the pilot study the researcher noticed that the indirect questions about curriculum reform generated responses that were not related to SCI implementation. At first in response to the pilot observations, the interview questions were re-worded to particularly focus on SCI implementation within recent curriculum reform. However, during data collection in the first school, the researcher discovered that the interviewees were not familiar with the terminology and meaning of SCI. The researcher therefore decided as part of a revised plan to present a general impression of SCI to the interviewees. This decision however meant that the interviewees' views about the meaning of SCI and its implementation were based on the researcher's personal interpretations of SCI. In other words, the researcher presented a general impression of SCI that was largely informed by her own understanding of SCI at date of the research.

For instance, the interviewees were questioned on the idea that students should be responsible for their own learning as one of the basic features of SCI. However, the interviewees attached their own interpretations to this idea and assumed that it would involve a process where 'the students will be dictating to their teachers'. This interpretation determined the interviewees' reactions to this feature of SCI. Possibly, the interviewees' reactions would have been different if an alternative explanation of this basic feature of SCI was provided. This includes the explanation that increased students' responsibility in learning can simply mean that students are allowed to choose the form and content of their class activities. The interviewees' reactions to this feature of SCI reflected beliefs that their students would decide the content or topics to be covered during each lesson. The alternative view to this incident is the researcher's acknowledgement that SCI in itself is a concept with diverse meanings and confusing terminologies in the international literature. This means that there is a possibility that the researcher and the interviewees could not have avoided the different interpretations of SCI that emerged from the data collection process. The fact that interviewees were able to present different interpretations of SCI in response to the researcher's list of basic features confirms that they interpretively engaged with the study.

Researcher's influence on data collection – as discussed earlier in Chapter 4, most of the lesson observations were organised to fit the researcher's schedule. Those lessons observations were conducted during periods assigned to another subject and the fact that they were premeditated became obvious in data collection. In other words, some lesson observations appeared to be staged rather than natural. This altered to some extent the researcher's aim to acquire naturally occurring data during data collection. The flow of conversation during focus groups was also influenced by the researcher. The selected students were encouraged to validate the views shared by their civic education teachers, and this formed the main part of the conversations. The researcher discovered afterwards that this process reduced the students' contributions to other topics during the focus groups. It also meant that the students spent more time validating their teacher's views and less time describing their own experiences of classroom practice.

Lastly, this research is a small-scale qualitative study, which does not intend to and is not actually capable of generalising beyond its scope. The research findings cannot be generalised across Nigeria or beyond. It does not intend to generalise beyond its scope either since generalisation is not a goal in qualitative research. Instead, the empirical design of this study enables it to provide useful information for those who seek to understand the course of LCE reform in Nigeria and the ripple effects in school settings. Also, this study raises questions rather than provides answers on some of the overlooked issues around education reform in Nigeria. It is the researcher's belief that asking the appropriate questions is a necessary step to obtaining valid and informative answers.

8.4 FUTURE RESEARCH

This study was informed by the observation that recent curriculum reform in Nigeria advocates LCE reform with little attention to the context realities that shape educational practice in Nigeria. This study has generated an empirical account of the conditions of learning and the challenges of SCI implementation in selected secondary schools. However, further research is needed to discover context-relevant solutions to improving education systems in Nigeria. One of the main questions that came up during

presentations at academic conferences and seminars is that this study seems to suggest that stakeholders should give up on ever considering SCI in Nigeria. This is not the case. The researcher's viewpoint is that different styles of pedagogic practice can be considered, bearing in mind the contextual factors that may affect implementation in Nigerian secondary schools.

This study has reiterated arguments in the international literature that the context and culture of each country should be prioritised in seeking ways to reform its educational system and improve the quality of education in its schools. It is the researcher's belief that school-based action research can help to investigate the varied styles of pedagogic practice which can improve learning in Nigerian schools and are adaptable to the Nigerian context. One of the principal concerns of education reform in Nigeria is how to improve student achievement in national examinations. This study has argued that there is no concrete evidence to suggest that SCI implementation on its own increases student scores in national examination, as opposed to the claims made in support of LCE reform in Nigeria. The researcher hopes that this argument can lead to more in-depth studies on alternative measures to improve student achievement in Nigerian schools.

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Appendix

APPENDIX 1: INFORMATION LETTERS & FORMS

Information letter given to school principals (May 2014)

The Principal

(School's Name & Address)

Ikolaba Secondary School

Agodi GRA

Ibadan.

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Abiodun Oyewole, and I am a PhD student at the Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol, United Kingdom. I am writing to request for your approval to carry out my research, titled – ***An exploratory study of student-centred practice in the second-year classes of Civic Education within secondary schools in Nigeria***, in your school. The proposed study has been validated and approved by a panel of internal examiners at the Graduate School of Education. The aim of the study is to investigate the process and outcomes of using student-centred methods during Civic education lessons in Nigerian secondary schools. I would like to conduct research in your school because it presumably has direct experience of the current curriculum reform.

The research process will involve spending two to three weeks in your school to familiarise with the school context and the individuals who are likely to participate in the research. I would like to shadow one or two students, and conduct a primary interview with you during the first week. I would also like to carry out lesson observations, student focus group discussions and interviews with teachers during the week(s) after. I would like to assure you that I will pay attention to the ethics of conducting academic research, which I have already discussed with my supervisors, throughout the time spent in your school. I am attaching an information sheet, which includes a brief introduction of my research and the research ethics that will be observed throughout the study. I would appreciate it if you would consider allowing me to carry out my research in your school.

Yours sincerely,

Abiodun Oyewole.

Doctoral Student.

Consent form signed by all participants (May 2014)

CONSENT FORM

An exploratory study of student-centred practice in the second-year classes of Civic Education within senior secondary schools in Nigeria

	Please tick if you agree
1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet explaining the study and I have had the opportunity to ask questions	☐
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from participating at any time, without giving any reasons.	☐
3. I understand that the group discussions and interviews will be recorded on voice recorders for future analysis	☐
4. I agree to take part in this study	☐

Signature of the Participant:
Name: .....
Email: .....
Date: .....
Researcher's Signature: .....
Name: .....
Date: .....

Information sheet given to participants (May 2014)

Participant Information Sheet

Hello, my name is Abiodun Oyewole, and I am a PhD student at the Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol, United Kingdom. I would like to invite you to participate in my research project entitled "An exploratory study of student-centred practice in the second-year classes of Civic Education within state secondary schools in Nigeria"

I have written an overview of my research below.

Research Objectives:	The main objectives of this research are to investigate the nature of instructional practice within state secondary schools in Nigeria; and obtain the perspectives of teachers, students as well as school administrators on their experiences within the Civic Education classes.
Research participants:	These will include teachers of Civic Education classes; students in the second and possibly third year classes within secondary schools, and the head-teachers.
Why you should participate:	Your participation will provide important data for this research and enable you to contribute to an assessment of teaching practice within your school
Confidentiality:	This research is conducted by following the ethical guidelines of carrying out research in social sciences. The necessary steps will be taken to keep data confidential, and ensure that participants will not be identified from the information provided during research.
How will we use the data collected?	The data/information collected during this research will be used in doctoral thesis. It will be presented at conferences and published in journals.
Who will verify and certify this research?	This research has been approved through assessment by an upgrade committee at the Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol on the 20th of March 2014.
Information about the researcher	If you have any further queries about my research, please contact me through any of the listed means. Telephone: Email: abi.oyewole@bris.ac.uk School Address (UK): Graduate School of Education University of Bristol 35, Berkeley Square Bristol BS8 1JA

APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW GUIDES

Topic guide for interviews with teachers

Introduction and opening questions

Academic background and how you became a civic education teacher in this school?

How does your teaching experience in previous schools differ from this school?

Main questions I (Basic features)

Can you give details of how your teaching activities are monitored or supervised? What do you think about the process? What are the schools' provisions for learning activities in your civic education lessons?

How would you describe the working conditions in your classrooms?

Main questions II (Classroom realities & perspectives on SCI)

Can you describe your responsibilities within a civic education lesson?

How would you describe your approach to teaching civic education classes? Why do you use this approach?

The new curriculum reform required some changes in the classroom, how would you describe them and the implications for your civic education lessons?

What are your thoughts on the new curriculum reform and the requirement of student-centred practice or student-centred instruction? What do you think about the implementation in your civic education lessons?

I would like to ask for your views on the following features of student-centred practice - what you think about them, which of them do you employ in teaching and which ones will you encourage? What are the limitations to each feature in your classrooms?

a. The opportunity to question and analyse any information that you provide as a teacher?
b. Students being responsible for their own learning in the classroom
c. The opportunity for students to learn independently and participate in activities that involve critical thinking
d. The use of dialogue and interaction
e. The existence of an interdependent relationship between the teacher and students
f. The existence of mutual respect between teachers and students
g. The use of innovative methods during your classes e.g. computer-assisted learning, roleplaying activities, quiz and debates, individual self-paced assignments

Closing questions

What do you think needs to be addressed in the implementation of student-centred practice?

Thanks for your time (Reminder for planned member check)

Topic guide for interviews with school principals

Introduction and opening questions Academic background and how you became the principal of this school? How would you describe the schools where you have been a principal before how do they compare to this school?
Main questions I (Basic features) How would you describe your management style? How do you monitor teaching activities and how you supervise your teachers? What do you think about the process of monitoring teachers? What kind of opportunities are available for teacher training in your school. Do you organise any of those seminars within the school? What do you provide for learning activities? Do you have any school rules for teachers and students? How do you monitor students' progress? Do you have any rules for learning activities? How do you ensure that the rules are kept?
Main questions II (Classroom realities & perspectives on SCI) How would you describe the overall approach to teaching in your school? Why do you use this approach? The new curriculum reform required some changes in the classroom, how would you describe them and the implications in your school classrooms. What are your thoughts on the new curriculum reform and the requirement of student-centred practice or student-centred instruction? what do you think about the implementation I would like to ask for your views on the following features of student-centred practice - what you think about them, are these features existing already, if not, would you encourage it? What are the limitations to each feature in your classrooms?[20] Can you describe the opportunities that students have to contribute to learning activities? Do students have opportunities to decide what to learn?
Closing questions What aspects do you think should be addressed in the implementation of the new curriculum? What are your thoughts overall? Thanks for your time (Reminder for planned member check)

[20] List included in teachers interview guide

Topic guide for interviews with vice principals

Introduction and opening questions Academic background and how you became the vice principal of this school? How would you describe your experience of being the vice principal of this school?
Main questions I (Basic features) How do you monitor teaching activities and how you supervise your teachers? What do you think about the process of monitoring teachers? What kind of opportunities are available for teacher training in your school. Do you organise any of those seminars within the school? What do you provide for learning activities? Do you have any school rules for teachers and students? How do you monitor students' progress? Do you have any rules for learning activities? How do you ensure that the rules are kept?
Main questions II (Classroom realities & perspectives on SCI) How would you describe the overall approach to teaching in your school? Why do you use this approach? The new curriculum reform required some changes in the classroom, how would you describe them and the implications in your school classrooms. What are your thoughts on the new curriculum reform and the requirement of student-centred practice or student-centred instruction? What do you think about the implementation? I would like to ask for your views on the following features of student-centred practice - what you think about them, are these features existing already, if not, would you encourage it. What are the limitations to each feature in your classrooms?[21] Can you describe the opportunities that students have to contribute to learning activities? Do students have opportunities to decide what to learn?
Closing questions Did the government make any preparations or provisions for the implementation of student-centred practice? What aspects do you think should be addressed in the implementation of the new curriculum? What are your thoughts overall? Do you have any other recommendations for supervising and monitoring teaching activities? Thanks for your time (Reminder for planned member check)

[21] List included in teachers interview guide.

Topic guide for focus groups

Introduction Introduction: sit students in a circle, establish an accommodating environment. Address confidentiality issues and talk about the background rules for the focus groups. Briefly describe agenda Ice breaker: Can you tell me something interesting that has happened in anyone of your classes, this week?
Discussion: Can you discuss your views on what you are expected to so during a civic education class? What do you think about the methods that your teacher uses during your civic education classes? What are the things that your civic education teacher does that you enjoy? Can you discuss your thoughts about opportunities that you are given to work on your own? Are you given opportunities to work on your own during a civic education class? Can you share your views about your relationship with your civic education teacher? What would you say are the differences between how you were taught in junior secondary school and how you are taught now? What opportunities do you have to contribute to your classes? Can you discuss your views about those opportunities? Are you aware of the teaching recommendations in the current curriculum reform? The following activities and issues are considered important in the current curriculum reform. Can you discuss which of these you have observed in your classrooms and your views about each of them?[22] What are your thoughts about the relevance of these activities and issues to your civic education classes? Which of the activities would you like to have during your civic education classes?
Wind up What would you like your teacher to give attention to during your civic education classes - the syllabus... your examinations or how well you understand the topic? Thanking the participants for being involved and re-address confidentiality issues.

[22] List included in teachers' interview guide

APPENDIX 3: EXAMPLES OF TRANSCRIPTS[23]

Extract of observation transcript – Lavender school

Conducted school observation in the first school on the first day and in the morning. Morning assembly started at 8.05am. The principal led a prayer session with the students and staff present at the assembly.

The assembly ground is made up of stairs and a space at the back of the dormitory where the principal stands to address the assembly...

The prayer ends after a few minutes and a student was called to the podium afterwards. She gave a presentation - short speech about modesty and received a lot of cheers from the some of the students…

The principal uses a method of speaking - which involves making statements and waiting for the students to complete the sentence. Teachers and staff members have used this same technique in the pilot school. It appears to be a common culture in the schools I've been to.

The principal informs the assembly that he wants to acknowledge a few students that just returned from a recently completed game competition in another city. He notes that the students went to represent Oyo state…

He concludes by praying for the students and teachers. He makes a few announcements after and rounds of the assembly. The students sing the school's anthem and leave to their classrooms…

The school is quite big and the students are leaving to different areas of the school as they leave the assembly. The students have slightly different uniforms and the younger students are walking towards the north-west part of the school while the older students are moving toward the north-east part of the school...

The school block located in front of the assembly was later identified as the boys 'dormitory. The school also has a few snack stalls located around the south-east of the school premises and these stalls are open during school hours.

The school has a basketball court located at the north-east part of the school with a row of school blocks that look relatively new compared to the other school blocks. Each school block consists of about 6 - 7 classrooms and a staffroom is visible on each block…

There is a workshop located beside the school blocks but it is closed. A few students are standing and walking around the blocks but most classes have teachers in them and the atmosphere looks quiet. Some of the school blocks are quite new, the year of commission is written on some of the blocks and some blocks that are under construction can be seen around this north-east part of the school…

Researcher's voice transcript

Extract of interview transcript – Civic education teacher, Cobalt secondary school

Introduction and Ethics

[23] Note that provided comments and responses are part and not full statements.

Can you describe your academic background and how you became the civic education teacher?

I had my first degree at the University of Ibadan, I read political science combined with adult education I used my first degree for my appointment.

Can you describe your responsibilities within a civic education class?

First, the lesson note must be written, because that will guide us through by the time we want to teach the students after that when we get to the class, we start by referring to the previous knowledge

How would you describe your approach to teaching civic education classes?

There is no specific approach, if someone wants these students to really get what someone is really teaching them, you cannot use a single approach we have different methodologies or approaches with which we can teach these students

Can you describe the outcomes of using the methods in your class?

By the time you assess the students after the lesson, you can see that their performance is better off than using just a single approach

Why are you teaching some of the topics that are listed for the third year to the second-year students?

Civic education in the senior school is a new scheme entirely, it was mainly meant for the junior students before but due to the new curriculum reform they now introduced civic education as part of the subjects that are compulsory for every senior school student.

How would you describe the working conditions in your classroom?

the working conditions in my class is not conducive at all because you know these children are too much, and for any class to achieve the main objectives, a teacher supposed to have a good class control.

Can you describe the schools' provisions for instructional activities in the classroom?

There is nothing like instructional materials, whatsoever and when you tell these students that we should improvise their parents will complain and I cannot use my own money, the little salary in collecting to improvise for them

Can you give details of how your teaching activities are monitored/supervised?

We have TESCOM, and the supervisors at the state level, they normally come they check our lesson notes, they go around to check the students in the class to know how the teachers are really performing in the school.

What do you think about the monitoring process?

The process is okay it will enable teachers to be effective to make sure that they plan before going to the class.

What are your thoughts on the requirement of student-centred practice in the recent curriculum reform?

When we talk about student-centred practice that is it’s mainly focused on the students, it’s okay there is nothing bad about it.

What do you think about the following features of student-centred practice, are you familiar with such method, if not, would you encourage it. Also, what do you will be the limiting factors to its implementation

during your lessons? The first is the opportunity to question and analyse any information that you provide as a teacher?

it's necessary and it supposed to be encouraged, like I said if you teach a student they ask questions and they analyse, that means they are gaining, the more they analyse the more they ask questions

Now that you have discussed the above features, what are your thoughts about the fact that they are all required during your classes?

I believe that by using all these approaches, some of the students are really performing well, it is not easy to get 100 percent but with the approach I believe some of them are performing

What do you think needs to be addressed in the implementation of student-centred practice?

The government should place more priority on education, because most of the parents are illiterates

Extract of focus group transcript[24] –

Can you give examples of parts that you enjoyed during the recently completed lesson?

M1: I liked the part that said that the structure of the political.
M2: political party
…
What was it that the teacher did that you think helped to understand what she was teaching?
F1: She always used examples … (Did she give those examples today)
F2 & F3: yes,
M1: she gave it
…
Can you give examples of parts of the lesson that you didn't really enjoy or that you felt disengaged from what the teacher was saying?
F1: Yes
M1: she said when there is change of government there won't be continuity in some things …
Are there similarities between how your teacher taught you today and the previous lessons that you've had with the same teacher?
M1 & F1: No
(What do you mean by no?)
M2: she is always the same
…
Are there any activities that you would like to see during your civic education class? I will give you an example, some people use discussions during a class, like students discussing among themselves
No responses.
(You like your class just the way it is?)
M1: yes
…
Can you give me examples of where you felt involved during the lessons? Or when you felt like - I had the chance to contribute to this lesson.
M2: When she is asking of questions
F2: questions
M1: the part that she said that the way out of the popular

[24] Note that provided responses are part and not the full statements of the interviewees

…
I noticed that some were sleeping, (laughs) during the lesson is that something that happens frequently?
F1: yes always
M1: no, I think they are the bench warmer
…

APPENDIX 4: ANALYSIS

Data related to the potential influences on SCI		
Data sets – field notes of observations, interview transcripts – school administrators, data from student shadowing		
Lavender	Cobalt	Jade
Codes school premises Student presentation at assembly Students award declaration at the assembly school environment Teacher activities – class attendance School laboratories Security procedures School monitoring Students' academic performance changing school policies provided teaching aids School comparison Principal's management style School activities Classroom rules for teachers Disciplinary measures for teachers Giving students school rules Disciplinary procedures for students Thoughts on teacher training School's response to student academic performance Types of training programmes contents of training programmes School's provisions for learning Student participation in learning activities Definition of student-centred Process of adapting student-centred methods where the idea came from School's challenge in implementing curriculum reform Teacher shortage for new subjects Alternative measures for teaching new subjects Definitions of curriculum reform Students background Managing parents complaints Disciplinary process for teachers Process of reporting teachers Warning for teachers Rules for teachers Parents and the school's disciplinary process Influence on school's disciplinary process School's disciplinary process Supervision process Monitoring process measures for monitoring Addressing students' performance Low performing students Existing student-centred teaching practice and class size Accepted student practice Student roles – in monitoring Views about SCI Required study work Reasons for study work Assessment standards Priorities in school work Grade standards Consequence of low performance	Codes – Practices at the assembly Vice principal's activities Teachers behaviour during assembly Staff meeting at assembly Continuous assessment period Notice Board School's resources School Environment Students movement during school hours Procedure for late arrival (students) Punishment Schools Laboratory Food and nutrition workspace Classes without teachers Organisation of school premises – rowdy? Student-teachers in school Duties of student-teachers State of classrooms Arrangement of classrooms? Use of library Use of computer room School status – current conditions Principals' roles in current conditions Views about the school standards Punishment Procedures Youth corps members as teacher's school's reactions to substitute teachers Differences between public schools Principal's activities Views about school management style Teacher monitoring process Ways to prevent examination malpractice The role of the teaching service commission Frequency of teacher training Procedures of teacher training School's provisions for learning activities School's provisions for civic lessons Principal's beliefs about teaching Resources not available Definitions of curriculum reform Needs of curriculum reform School's teacher capacity Rules for teachers and students Checks on the teacher The role of the ministry of education Punishable behaviour Links between academic system procedures and the African culture Power differences between teacher and students Student-teacher relations Staff's expectations from students Effects of large class size Records of student performance Effects of school standard state of school and learning resources Current school situation Unavailable resources State of school facilities Current school conditions Learning conditions in the classroom Lack of teachers Views about curriculum reform Large class size Movement in class Description of classroom Teachers movement in classrooms Scolding in the classroom	Codes Measures of discipline Students punishment Practices at morning assembly Empty classrooms Description of classrooms Continuous assessment procedures Classroom contents Student roles Classroom organisation Classroom arrangement State of classrooms Student activities during early hours Effect of ongoing exams State of classrooms School resources – Punishment School's environment Uncompleted school blocks Principal's duties & responsibilities management style Staff meetings Purpose of staff meetings School rules for teachers Rules for students Classroom rules for students Corrective measures for students Rationale for student punishment Principal's knowledge about teacher training for student – teacher relations Process of teacher training Constituents of teacher training Type of available training in school Frequency of available training Schools provision for learning activities Process of providing learning resources Unavailable school resources Unavailable learning resources Thoughts about curriculum reform Problems with curriculum reform school managements attitude Description of students background students capabilities Extracurricular activities Process of reporting a teacher Process of correcting teacher behaviour Rules for teachers Disciplinary process for students Student monitoring Addressing student maltreatment School management activities Vp activities Supervision activities Expected teacher – student relations Views on student-teacher relations Teacher training activities Responsibility for teacher training in public schools use of teaching aids School condition Link between teacher transfer and school conditions school conditions Lack of teacher and resources Students responsibility State of curriculum reform Current events in national assessment Views about restructuring the curriculum Thoughts about curriculum reform Process of in session assessment School standards for promotion Thoughts on school standards for promotion Current school conditions Awareness of learning procedures Transferred teachers Reaction to transfer situation Alternative measures to transfer situation Current conditions for learning School standards Inadequate school conditions Description of student-teacher relations Student-teacher relations Influences on students learning
Categories –highlighting differences between present school and other Duties of the principal in terms of school supervision? Approach to school management School culture usual activities School culture school meetings School culture staff meetings School culture disciplinary procedures for teachers & students School culture process of supervising teachers? School culture punishment School culture disposition to teacher training reactions to students' performance School culture student-teacher relations Talks about teacher training Described provisions for learning activities Conditions/process of providing for learning activities Implementation process of curriculum reform conditions of implementation Conditions of school resources unavailable items Described limitations of curriculum reform		
Final categories/labels – Awareness of curriculum reform, school and classroom conditions, focus of learning, in-serve teacher training, school culture		

Analysis continued

Data related to classroom practice in civic education lessons		
Data set – lesson observation notes, transcripts of debrief sessions, transcripts of teacher interviews, transcripts of focus groups audio recordings of lesson observations, pictures of lesson notes on civic education, the civic education syllabus, the transcripts of the debrief sessions		
Lavender	Cobalt	Jade -
Codes - Introduction with plan for the lesson Recitation Use of questions Students contribution – answering questions Teachers method – sharing personal experience Student interactions – related to topic Level of student-teacher involvement Use of teaching aids Lack of group work Use of questions Use of questions Recitation Teacher's methods – role play Students reactions – laughter Student movement – unrelated to class activity Lack of group activity Student interaction – unrelated to class activity Calls for quieter atmosphere Teaching functions Familiar practices Teacher's usual practice Occasional features of lessons Co-learning in the classroom Accepted acts in the classroom Examples (experiences) Use of resources during lessons Use of teaching resources Teacher's reaction/role Listening to query Problem-solving experience allow to query Group discussions Untried practice Reactions to events Teacher's reaction to indiscipline Assessment of learning Means of assessing learning Assessment style Measures of Class discipline	Codes- - Teacher's position Introduction – with reference to previous lesson Ratio of teacher to student involvement Recitation Student movement – unrelated to class activity Lack of group work Student interaction – unrelated to class activity Use of language – in class Use of questions Chorus responses teacher's position Introduction – with reference to previous lesson Teacher's comments on negative behaviour Use of questions Students contribution – answering questions Recitation Lack of group work/activity Level of teacher to student involvement Use of language in class Teacher's advice Teacher's method – sharing personal experience Student assessment Uses of student assessment Measure of students' learning Teacher's activities Learning Procedures Teaching Process During class activity Lesson Norms Teacher's duties Effect of class size Teacher's choices Teaching Resources Missing Methods Available Methods Moderated relations between teacher and students	Codes - Teacher movement in class Student involvement ratio Class activity – responding to questions Student interaction – not related to lesson Lack of group work Student punishment in class Problem-solving Question Level of teacher vs student involvement Use of language in class Frequency of asking questions Students contributions in class – answering teacher's questions Use of questions Use of teaching aids Recitation Frequency of asking questions Students contribution – answering questions Teachers methods – sharing personal experiences Students expressions – disagreement with teacher's view Unrelated student interaction Teacher's methods – role play Punishment in class Use of language class discussions Students contributions – asking questions Students contributions – comments Civics teaching Civics assessment Teacher's choices Teacher's activities Teacher motivation Available activities Class activities Available practice Frequent activities Class activities Out-of-class activities Classroom experiences Class/lesson experiences Unplanned activity/method Process of classroom discipline Class control measures Teacher's responsibilities Teacher's role Teacher's functions Unavailable activities Asking questions – as a class activity Teacher-given assignments Problem solving activity Interaction Influences on lesson Method for student's engagement Effect of activity Students feedback Evidenced outcomes Limited use of teaching aids Irregular use of teaching aids Use of teaching aids Support Teaching aids Provisional resources The Disruptive students
Typical practice in Civics Lessons Familiar experiences in the classroom Stated effects for learning activities Student activities in a civics lesson Existing practices in teaching Non-existent practices in teaching Argued links between culture/context and education Measures of assessment Process of class control Assessment Measures Typical practice in Civics Lessons Class size and shape of lesson Views and beliefs about teaching Existing/Non-existent practices in teaching		
Minimal use of class activity Sustained presence of the teacher Students' view of an engaging lesson Measures of class management the use of dialogue during a lesson features of individual classroom Use of accessible language in the classroom		

Analysis continued

data related to stakeholders' views about classroom practice in civic education lessons and SCI implementation		
Data set – transcripts of the teacher interviews, the focus groups and debrief sessions.		
Reasons for teacher activities Teacher's beliefs about the subject content Teacher's beliefs about instruction Teacher's views about instruction effects of activities Teacher's role Teachers duty Interpretation of required practice Personal beliefs Personal values Problem solving activity Opportunity to interact Opportunity to query Opportunity to discuss Opportunity to manage an activity Views about missing methods Student-teacher relations Teacher's views about relations with students Teacher's views about SCI Teacher's reactions Teacher's responses Observed student tendencies Relayed students feelings Beliefs about Nigerian context Beliefs about African context	Student assessment Uses of student assessment Measure of students' learning Teacher's activities Learning procedures Teaching process Lesson norms Interpretation of required teaching practice Teacher's duties Reasons for teacher's activities Benefits of teacher's activities Effect of class size teacher's disposition Teacher's views Teaching principles Teacher's choices Views about class control Views about class conditions Views about students questions Parents attitudes Students attitude Student-teacher relations Moderated relations between teacher and students	Beliefs about subject teaching Influence on class attendance Assessment Process Teacher's choice of activity Teacher's preferred activity Teacher's activity Available Activities Reasons for available practice Experiences Teacher's role Teacher's responsibility opportunity to share/respond problem solving activity Experienced outcomes of activities personal beliefs Personal values Students' right Student-teacher relations Highlighted Students attitudes
Categories - Rationalising usual practices Explaining the benefits of some chosen activities Difference in students' attitude to learning (justifying practice) Talking about what determines the mood of a lesson Talks about assumptions (esp. about students) that inform instructional practice Expressed beliefs linked to instruction – I believe so I do… (beliefs about instruction) Expressed beliefs – related to instruction, I believe so I do… (personal beliefs and values) Choices that the teacher made in a lesson Described reactions to issues & activities – highlighting teacher's personality in instructional practice Responsibilities highlighted in positioning – linked to instructional practice Responsibilities highlighted in positioning themselves – linked to instructional practice Issues hazily linked to instructional practice – student-teacher relations Practice described as feasible given the conditions of learning Practice described as unfeasible given the conditions of learning Reflections on the suggested features of SCI Definitions of SCI Talks about the process of assessment Positioning and responsibility Rationalising the classroom atmosphere/mood Rationalising/justifying usual practice The usual activities in lessons – constituents of instructional practice Highlighted teacher's preference/choice of (in) instructional practice Methods described as missing or unavailable Talks about discipline and classroom management Talks about the process of assessment Unusual things linked to instructional practice - students' right; highlighted students attitudes; lesson guides		
Perceptions of aim & responsibility in teaching, presented rationale for various choices, positive views of classroom practice, admitted influences on classroom practice, activities preferred/not preferred, dispositions to SCI perceptions of SCI perceived influences on SCI views about student-teacher relations, positive views of SCI, sceptical views of SCI		

Appendix 5: Background information for Cobalt school

Cobalt can be described as a 'sectioned' school. In the mid-2000s, the Oyo state government implemented a policy to create more schools by using the existing school structures. This meant that a school was split into two or more schools; differentiated by the junior or senior level. Both levels already existed within private and public secondary schools in Nigeria, but the decision meant that a junior/senior level could be recognised as an independent school. The use of an existing structure however, meant that the independent 'sectioned' schools will share the learning spaces and facilities within the school environment where they were located originally.

According to newspaper reports, the process was introduced to create more leadership positions in public secondary schools. The decision was based on an argument that the student population of 'whole' schools were becoming too much for the existing administrators to supervise. In less than a decade, the policy has been changed three times. Incumbent state governors have endorsed the following changes, in sequence. Let's assume that the first implementation is phase I. Phase II involved the merge of split schools back into the original 'whole' school; the process was referred to as an 'articulation' of schools. Phase III involved a re-division of the re-merged schools, and making only the junior levels into independent schools. Phase III was described as the dis-articulation process. Phase IV involved another merge of the 'dis-articulated' schools. Phase IV was described as the re-articulation process. It was also the most recent phase as well as an ongoing process, as at research date.

Research articles stated that some public schools in Nigeria did not go through any of the changes and remained as 'whole' schools, while some went through the changes at different levels. For instance, some schools went through phase I and chose not to implement the subsequent changes. Cobalt emerged during the introduction of phase IV, otherwise known as re-articulation within its original school. The original school from which Cobalt was generated, was established as a private school in 1964. The state government acquired it after a few years, and it became a public school. During the phase I of school changes, the original school was divided into five schools. This included three junior level schools and senior level schools. No changes were implemented during the articulation and dis-articulation phases. The schools were not demarcated so they all operated within the same environment. Soon after introducing the re-articulation policy, the five schools were reduced to three schools. School A was formed by merging one of the junior schools and one of the senior schools. School B was also formed by merging one of junior schools and one of the senior schools. School C consisted of the last junior school. School A is being referred to as Cobalt in this study.

Cobalt is therefore a sectioned school that was formed in 2013.

APPENDIX 6: TIMETABLE AND SUMMARY OF DATA COLLECTION

Timetable

	Schools			
WEEKS	Pilot school	Lavender	Cobalt	Jade
19 – 23 May	Pilot research	Initial contact with school		
26 – 30 May				
2 – 6 June		School observation, staff interviews & student shadow		
9 – 13 June		Lesson observations, interviews, focus group	Initial contact with school	
16 – 20 June			School & lesson observations, debrief sessions with teacher and Social science student group	
23 – 27 June			Student shadow, debrief sessions, interviews, focus groups, lesson observations	Initial contact with school
30 June – 4 July		Second teacher interview & member check		School observations and Interview
7 – 11 July			Member check	Lesson observation interviews, student shadow, focus groups
14 – 18 July				Member check

SUMMARY OF DATA COLLECTION

Pilot school

General observation took place on the first day (May 19th), did an audio recording of my observations and thoughts about it – approximately 1 hour and 20 minutes. I also took pictures of the whole school environment. The interview with the principal took place the third day (May 21st) – about 1 hour and 5 minutes of audio recording. The first lesson observation was also conducted on the third day – recorded with an audio recorder and detailed note taking. A teacher debrief session was held immediately after the lesson and a student debrief session about 2 hours later, with a group of students from the class observed earlier. The main teacher interview was conducted on the fourth day (May 22nd) – 51 minutes of audio recording. A focus group discussion was conducted with a group of students from the Arts class on the fifth day (May 23rd) – about 1 hour and 40 minutes of audio recording.

Lavender

General school observation was conducted on the first day (June 2nd), audio recording of my observations and a brief chat with the principal to get further explanations on some of the things I observed – about 2 hours and 31 minutes of recording. Had a brief chat about the school context, with a security guard in the school on the second day (June 3rd) – 9 minutes of audio recording. Had the principal's interview on the second day as well - 34 minutes of recording. Completed a part of the student shadowing session by interviewing a student in the school – 30 minutes of audio recording. Had a session of sit-down observations at three strategic locations in the school, on the third day (June 4th) – 34 minutes of audio recording. I took pictures of the whole school environment on the same day.

I conducted the second part of the student shadowing process on the fourth day (June 5th) – following the student around the school and to one of her classes; also asked her some questions during the process - about 1 hour and 9 minutes of audio recording. School had a mid-term break and I came back on the fifth day (June 10th) to continue observations of the school environment. I was able to conduct the first lesson observation on the sixth day (June 11th) – recorded by detailed note taking and an audio recorder. I conducted the student and teacher debrief sessions on the class observed, after that. I also had an interview with the vice principal (academics) – about 24 minutes of audio-recording. The first main group discussion with students selected from the science class – was conducted on the seventh day (June 12th) – about 1 hour and 4 minutes of audio recording. On the eighth day (June 13th) – I conducted the second lesson observation - recorded by detailed note taking and an audio recorder. I conducted the debrief sessions with the teacher and students. In the afternoon, I conducted the main teacher interview – about 45 minutes of audio recording. I also conducted the second group discussion with students from the Social science class – about 26 minutes of audio recording. I returned to the school two weeks later to conduct a follow up interview with the Civic education teacher – about 20 minutes of audio recording. The class teachers selected a group of students from their classes based on the researcher's requirements.

Cobalt

General school observation was conducted on the first day (June 16th) – audio recording of my observations and a brief chat with a local person in the school, about 1 hour 34 minutes of recording. The principal's interview was conducted on the second day (June 17th) – about 21 minutes of recording. The interview with the Vice principal was conducted about 2 hours later – 35 minutes of recording. The sit-down observations were conducted on the third day (June 18th). On the fourth day (June 19th) I conducted the first lesson observation and the debrief sessions with the Civic education teacher and students from the social science

class. School activities were suspended the next day due to the death of a famous politician in the state. I returned to school on the fifth day (June 23rd) – to conduct the student shadowing session. I conducted the second lesson observation on the sixth day (June 24th) – recorded by detailed note taking and an audio recorder. I also conducted the student and teacher debrief sessions on the sixth day. I had the main interview with the Civic education teacher on the seventh day (June 25th) – about 38 minutes of audio recording. On the eighth day (June 26th) – I had a follow up interview with the Vice principal – about 32 minutes of audio recording. I also conducted the main group discussion with the first set of students from the social science class – about 50 minutes of audio recording. I returned to the context on the eighth day to have the second group discussion with selected students from the science class – about 56 minutes of audio recording. The Civic education teacher monitors the academic progress of students in the second school – and she selected a group of students from both the science and social science classes based on the researcher's requirements.

Jade

General school observation took place on the first day in the school (June 30th). I had the main interview with the vice principal on the second day (July 1st) – about 40 minutes of audio recording. I also had the main interview with the principal on the second day - about 30 minutes of audio recording. I conducted my sit-down observations in the school on the third day (July 2nd) – about 27 minutes of audio recording. I also had an interview one of the school administrators to talk about the school context. Continued with school observations on the fourth day (July 3rd) – the examination period was about to start – so the school atmosphere was more focused on preparing for the coming examinations.

Returned to the school on the fifth day (July 7th) to conduct the student shadowing session. I also conducted the main group discussion with the first set of students from the social science class – made the decision to speak with the students before the lesson observations due to the time limit before their examinations. Had an initial discussion with the students from the science class the same day. I was able to conduct the first lesson observation on the sixth day (July 8th) - as well as the student and teacher debrief sessions. The second discussion with the students from the science class was held on the seventh day (July 9th) - about 1 hour of audio recording overall. The school had a break the next day – due to the temporary use of the venue for national examinations. On the eighth day (July 11th), I conducted the second lesson observation and the debrief sessions for the Civic education teacher and students from the science class. I had the main teacher interview the same day – about 58 minutes of audio recording. The class teacher for the social science class selected a group of students based on the researcher's requirements and a subject teacher made selections on the behalf of the class teacher for the science class – due to his unavailability during the duration of research in the school.

APPENDIX 7: BACKGROUND THEMES FOR THE LIST OF BASIC FEATURES OF SCI

SCHWEISFURTH	O'NEILL & MCMAHON	LIST OF BASIC FEATURES IN SCI	Basic features from analysis
LESSONS ARE ENGAGING TO PUPILS, MOTIVATING THEM TO LEARN (BEARING IN MIND THAT DIFFERENT APPROACHES MIGHT WORK IN DIFFERENT CONTEXTS). 7	THE RELIANCE ON ACTIVE RATHER THAN PASSIVE LEARNING 7 AN EMPHASIS ON DEEP LEARNING AND UNDERSTANDING	1 THE OPPORTUNITY TO QUESTION AND ANALYSE ANY INFORMATION THAT YOU PROVIDE AS A TEACHER ③	The use of class activities ①
ATMOSPHERE AND CONDUCT REFLECT MUTUAL RESPECT BETWEEN TEACHERS AND PUPILS. CONDUCT SUCH AS PUNISHMENT AND THE NATURE OF RELATIONSHIPS DO NOT VIOLATE RIGHTS (BEARING IN MIND THAT RELATIONSHIPS MIGHT STILL BE RELATIVELY FORMAL AND DISTANT). 6	INCREASED RESPONSIBILITY AND ACCOUNTABILITY ON THE PART OF THE STUDENT 2 MAKE THE STUDENT MORE ACTIVE IN ACQUIRING KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS AND MIGHT INCLUDE EXERCISES IN CLASS, FIELDWORK, USE OF CAL (COMPUTER ASSISTED LEARNING) PACKAGES ETC. 7	7 THE USE OF INNOVATIVE METHODS DURING YOUR CLASSES E.G. COMPUTER-ASSISTED LEARNING, ROLEPLAYING ACTIVITIES, QUIZ AND DEBATES, INDIVIDUAL SELF-PACED ASSIGNMENTS ①	The opportunity for dialogue and interaction during lessons ②
LEARNING CHALLENGES BUILD ON LEARNERS' EXISTING KNOWLEDGE (BEARING IN MIND THAT THIS EXISTING KNOWLEDGE MIGHT BE SEEN COLLECTIVELY RATHER THAN INDIVIDUALISTICALLY). 5	AN INCREASED SENSE OF AUTONOMY IN THE LEARNER 5 AN INTERDEPENDENCE BETWEEN TEACHER AND LEARNER	5 THE EXISTENCE OF AN INTERDEPENDENT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TEACHER AND STUDENTS ③	The opportunity for students to share different opinions on subject content ③
DIALOGUE (NOT ONLY TRANSMISSION) IS USED IN TEACHING AND LEARNING (BEARING IN MIND THAT THE TONE OF DIALOGUE AND WHO IT IS BETWEEN MAY VARY). 4	MUTUAL RESPECT WITHIN THE LEARNER TEACHER RELATIONSHIP 6 MAKE THE STUDENT MORE AWARE OF WHAT THEY ARE DOING AND WHY THEY ARE DOING IT. A FOCUS ON INTERACTION, SUCH AS THE USE OF TUTORIALS AND OTHER DISCUSSION GROUPS. 4	6 THE EXISTENCE OF MUTUAL RESPECT BETWEEN TEACHERS AND STUDENTS ⑤	
CURRICULUM IS RELEVANT TO LEARNERS' LIVES AND PERCEIVED FUTURE NEEDS, IN A LANGUAGE ACCESSIBLE TO THEM (MOTHER TONGUE EXCEPT WHERE PRACTICALLY IMPOSSIBLE) (BEARING IN MIND THAT THERE WILL BE TENSIONS BETWEEN GLOBAL, NATIONAL AND LOCAL UNDERSTANDINGS OF RELEVANCE). 7	THE LEARNER HAS FULL RESPONSIBILITY FOR HER/HIS LEARNING 2 INVOLVEMENT AND PARTICIPATION ARE NECESSARY FOR LEARNING 7	4 THE USE OF DIALOGUE AND INTERACTION ②	The idea that students should be responsible for their own learning in the classroom ④
CURRICULUM IS BASED ON SKILLS AND ATTITUDE OUTCOMES AS WELL AS CONTENT. THESE SHOULD INCLUDE SKILLS OF CRITICAL AND CREATIVE THINKING (BEARING IN MIND THAT CULTURE-BASED COMMUNICATION CONVENTIONS ARE LIKELY TO MAKE THE 'FLAVOUR' OF THIS VERY DIFFERENT IN DIFFERENT PLACES). 7	THE TEACHER BECOMES A FACILITATOR AND RESOURCE PERSON THE LEARNER EXPERIENCES CONFLUENCE IN HIS EDUCATION (AFFECTIVE AND COGNITIVE DOMAINS FLOW TOGETHER)	2 STUDENTS BEING RESPONSIBLE FOR THEIR OWN LEARNING IN THE CLASSROOM ④	The notion of mutual respect between teachers and their students ⑤
ASSESSMENT FOLLOWS UP THESE PRINCIPLES BY TESTING SKILLS AND BY ALLOWING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES. IT IS NOT PURELY CONTENT-DRIVEN OR SUCCESS BASED ONLY ON ROTE LEARNING (BEARING IN MIND THAT THE DEMAND FOR COMMON EXAMINATIONS IS UNLIKELY TO BE OVERCOME).	THE LEARNER SEES HIMSELF DIFFERENTLY AS A RESULT OF THE LEARNING EXPERIENCE STUDENT–CENTREDNESS INCLUDES THE IDEA THAT STUDENTS HAVE CHOICE IN WHAT TO STUDY, HOW TO STUDY. 2	3 THE OPPORTUNITY FOR STUDENTS TO LEARN INDEPENDENTLY AND PARTICIPATE IN ACTIVITIES THAT INVOLVE CRITICAL THINKING ①	

GSOE RESEARCH ETHICS FORM

Name(s): Abiodun Oyewole
Proposed Research Project: An exploratory study of student-centred practice in secondary schools in Nigeria
Proposed Funder(s): N/A
Discussant for Ethics Meeting: Wan Raisuha Wan Ali
Name of Supervisor(s): Professor Sally Thomas and Elizabeth McNess
Has your supervisor seen this submitted draft of your ethics application? Y

Please include an outline of the project or append a short (1 page) summary

The aim of this research is to explore student-centred practice within Nigerian classrooms. Student-centred practice involves the use of teaching methods that engage the student within the classroom. It is a feature of learner-centred education, which has become a trend in curriculum reform within developing countries. However, there have been reports which suggest that various issues emerge from the introduction of learner-centred initiatives in developing countries. Student-centred practice has also been introduced to secondary school classrooms in Nigeria which prompts the need to test out claims about implementation issues within the Nigerian context. This study is expected to contribute evidence by investigating the nature and impact of student-centred practice within two public secondary schools in Nigeria. The research will employ a qualitative methodology to investigate classroom realities and obtain the views of teachers and students about student-centred practice within their classrooms. This includes the use of observations, focus groups and semi-structured interviews to collect data in the selected schools. The schools will be selected from an urban area in the south-west region of Nigeria. The Civic education classes will be observed during the spring term (3-4 months) which is also the last term for the final year students. The classes will be observed twice in each school, which adds up to four classroom observations in both schools. Interviews will be conducted with the presumably four teachers of Civic Education in the two schools. Three focus groups, made up of eight students each, will be conducted in each school. Data will be collected through field notes from observations and audio-recordings of all interviews and discussions; and analysed using thematic analysis, a widely used method of qualitative data analysis.

Ethical Issues discussed and decisions taken:

1. Researcher's access and exit – In a Nigerian public secondary school, the principal decides whether to grant access to the researcher based on how sensitive the study is. This means that only studies which deals with sensitive or controversial issues are passed on by the principal to the Local Education Authority (LEA) for approval. Therefore, the researcher should inform the principal of the nature of the study and obtain his approval, to conduct research in a Nigerian secondary school. The researcher is expected to write a letter to the school principal and negotiate the terms of inquiry after receiving his approval. The school will also provide an identification pass that is needed to retain access for the duration of research. I have made initial contacts with some likely schools and already obtained an encouraging response from one of the schools. The researcher will conduct an exit meeting with the school principal after completing the data collection. The researcher will discuss the final details of research with the school principal and ensure that all related concerns are resolved before exit from the research site.

2. Information given to participants – An information sheet will be prepared and given to potential participants in the study prior to data collection. It will include information on what the research is about, what the participants are required to do, and the participants' rights in relation to the study. Participants will also be informed about what will be involved if they agree to participate and how data will be used and reported.

3. Participants' right of withdrawal – The researcher will inform the participants that they have the right to withdraw from research at any time without providing reasons for withdrawing. This will also be included in the information sheet. Also, any data that is collected from a participant who has withdrawn will not be used and appropriately removed.

4. Informed consent – Consent forms will be prepared and attached to the information sheets given to potential participants. It is a norm to acquire the voluntary informed consent of research participants in Nigerian schools. The consent forms will require participants' signatures as proof that they understand the information provided and are willing to participate in research activities. In some schools, if the research is conducted within the school premises and supervised by an administrator, it is not mandatory to seek parental consent based on the age of the participants. However, if any of the schools request that parental consent must be acquired for students who are willing to participate in the study, the researcher will also seek parental consent prior to data collection.

5. Complaints procedure – If it happens that participants need to make a complaint about the content of research or the researcher, the appropriate channels to do so will be provided in the information sheet given to them.

6. Safety and Well-being of Participants – The researcher will ensure that no harm or risks come to the participant because of participating in research. Any detriments or concerns that are anticipated from the process and findings of research will be shared with participants, guardians and gatekeepers prior to research. Participants will also be informed of unexpected detriments in research, as soon as possible. The following steps will be taken by the researcher to ensure the safety and wellbeing of both the researcher and participants during fieldwork. All research activities will be conducted within the school premises and within hours that will not be disadvantageous to any of the parties involved. Private venues will not be used for research activities because the researcher may be unable to predict the occurrence of risk situations. The researcher will refrain from sharing her personal details such as home address with research participants since this is not a requirement in the study. Where it is required, parents or guardians will be informed of the duration and schedule of research activities and their wards whereabouts during a period.

7. Anonymity/Confidentiality – the necessary steps will be taken to assure the participants of confidential and anonymous treatment of data. This means that all personal information will be kept confidential, and the researcher will ensure that participants cannot be identified from the information provided in research. The informed consent and personal details of the participants will be kept separate from data and accessible to the researcher only.

8. Data Collection – It is unlikely that personal issues will be shared during the data collection process. However, if such issues are raised, the researcher will keep in mind the implications of assuring confidentiality to the research participants. If a concern arises regarding teachers' monitoring of what students share, the researcher will assure the teachers that data will not be reported in a way that ascribes blame to any teacher and maintain confidentiality on students' views.

9. Data Analysis – The researcher will ensure that participants' identities are preserved within reports of analysed data. This will be done by providing pseudonyms for participants in data reports. If it is in any participant's interest to waive the right to privacy (especially if pictures are taken in data collection for detailed description of the context), the researcher will obtain the waiver in written form.

10. Data Storage – The researcher will ensure that all data stored on computers or personal laptops are secured by password protection.

11. Feedback/Reporting of research – The researcher will inform participants that research is expected to be reported as a research thesis, presented in conferences and published in academic journals. In addition, if it is requested, a summary of findings will be given to the school administrators, teachers and the principal.

Signed: Abiodun O Oyewole (Researcher)
Signed: Wan Raisuha Wan Ali (Discussant)
Date: 12th of March 2014